The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 28, 1904.

The Week.

Nothing in Mr. Cleveland's summons to his party to rally about Parker will give more offence to certain Republicans than his intimation that an overruling Providence is preparing the way for Democratic success. Yet Mr. Cleveland is the son of a Calvinist clergyman accustomed to deciphering the divine decrees, and he expresses "reverent belief" that a "leading wiser and more certain than the wit of man could have devised" brought about the nomination of Judge Parker. This, in Republican eyes, is pretty near sacrilege as well as high treason. It is not that there is objection to a political party annexing Providence, but that party must be Republican. For the Democrats to claim any share in the favor of Heaven is an impudent poaching upon Republican preserves. The little girl in *Punch* who overheard her governess actually saying her prayers in French—as if God could understand that language—was no more astonished and horrified than Republicans will be at seeing the weakest Democratic saint upon his knees.

Carl Schurz's letter to Judge Parker will give little comfort to the Republicans. He not only refuses to believe that the Democratic nominee was guilty of a scurvy trick in sending that telegram to the St. Louis Convention, but finds him quite as worthy of praise as does Mr. Cleveland. That Mr. Schurz's opinion carries great weight with the independent and German-American voters it is unnecessary to state, and we shall doubtless soon have proof of the importance of his utterance in the form of attacks upon him by the Republican press. The leading German newspapers, by the way, which left the party because of Bryanism, are now as eager on behalf of Parker as Mr. Schurz himself. Equally interesting is the fact that many Republicans are declaring their readiness to vote for the Judge. This is not merely proved by the letters he is receiving, but in other ways, and this Republican defection will more than offset the decision of some Gold Democrats, like Mr. Oscar Straus, to follow Mr. Roosevelt. It is the steadily growing belief that the President is temperamentally an unsafe man which is winning these recruits for the Democrats. All the oratory of a Hay and a Root, all their arguments that the Republican party is the only one with capacity to govern, cannot make head against this as long as their candidate is what he is.

That Senator Gorman will not be Chairman of the Democratic National Committee is an auspicious omen. The deep-seated distrust which this boss has inspired among honest Democrats and independent voters is well known. He is to be credited with all of the wisdom which belongs to "that crafty and insidious animal called a politician," but he lacks the fundamental requisites of a general who can inspire his cohorts with confidence. The cunning of the serpent often fails where clear-eyed, transparent directness and honesty of purpose will succeed. Moreover, the fact that Senator Gorman, out of pure personal pique, was ready to close the Democratic Headquarters in one of the Cleveland campaigns on the very eve of election, raises the gravest doubts of his capacity as a leader. It needs to be reiterated that, without the aid of the independent vote, the Democratic candidate for President cannot be elected. That vote is just as necessary to Democratic success now as ever. Mr. Gorman's selection as Chairman would have fallen like a wet blanket upon that element. It was far more important that Senator Gorman or a man of his type should not be put in command, than that any other particular aspirant for the position, like Mr. Taggart, should be chosen.

The post-convention utterances of Mr. Bryan have not raised a ripple. The public attitude towards him has been the extreme of indifference. Even last Thursday's deliverance has interest only as an individual instance of pathological psychology. While leader of his party, Mr. Bryan did not, so he tells us, feel at liberty to "engraft new doctrines upon the party creed"; but now that he is only a member in the ranks, he may undertake the organization of the radical and progressive element in the Democratic party! We have all along harbored the delusion that it was this radical element which had foisted Bryanism on the party in the last two campaigns. A momentary gleam of sanity is to be detected in the averment that "the people cannot be brought at this time to consider the various phases of the money question," but the new issues which Mr. Bryan intends to bring forward leave little hope of his recovering his political health. After two weeks' study of the railroad question, the *Commoner* declares for public ownership, not by the Federal Government, but by the States. This plan will avoid the dangers of centralization. But all who appreciate the magnitude of interstate railway traffic will pronounce such a scheme the wildest lunacy. The Post-Office, on the other hand, according to Mr. Bryan, is to absorb the telegraph system. How this can be done without giving an impetus to centralization we are not told. Municipal ownership of municipal franchises, for which Mr. Bryan also contends, he fails to define. In fact, his utterances, except for their indication of malevolent spite against the present Democratic standard-bearer, have nothing to do with present politics.

The *Herald's* outspoken repudiation of Mr. Roosevelt is another and a striking proof of the dissatisfaction of the metropolitan press with the President. After three years' experience with him, the *Herald*, *Sun*, *Times*, *Staats-Zeitung*, *World*, *Brooklyn Eagle*, and *Evening Post* have been compelled to oppose his reëlection, though they all supported McKinley. It is unusual for the *Herald* to take up its position so early in the campaign, but there is nothing uncertain about its note. Despite the mud-throwing of the Republican organs, it finds that Judge Parker's telegram "has won the confidence of the people, and that sort of confidence Mr. Roosevelt has not inspired." Acknowledging the latter to be irreproachable personally, the *Herald* declares that conservative people "doubt his capacity for self-control, distrust his judgment, and question his conception of Presidential duties," which leads him to think himself "a sort of dictator." This change of feeling among the newspapers of this city shows very clearly that it is the Republican party upon which now rests the burden of proof that it is sufficiently sane and safe to be entrusted with the conduct of the government.

In pleasant contrast to the solemn and perfunctory assurance which Mr. Roosevelt gave the Pennsylvania miners' delegation that their petition would be referred to the Department of Labor and Commerce, is the action of Capt. Sewell in the strike upon the Army Engineer School at the Washington Barracks. Over the recent labor difficulties in Colorado the Federal Executive has no direct jurisdiction. It would have been more frank if the President had flatly said so to the delegates. But in the Washington strike, as in the preceding difficulty in the Government Printing Bureau, the President has everything to do. We commended at the time the position which Mr. Roosevelt then took, that the regulations of labor unions are subordinate to the Constitution of the United States. Consistency will require that in the present strike the President stand by Capt. Sewell. It appears that when it was found advisable to increase the force of bricklayers upon the bar-

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racks, the first name furnished by the Civil Service Commission was that of a non-union negro. The twenty-eight union bricklayers quitted work, and informed Capt. Sewell that the rules of their union would not permit them to work with non-union men. To this the doughty Captain made a very proper, if a bit ironical, reply, that in that case they had better change their rules, as "it would be far easier to amend their regulations than to change the Constitution of the United States." The Federal anti-Trust statute, no less than the Constitutional equality of all men before the law, is just as much opposed to a job-trust as to a coal combine. It matters little that the "glad hand" be given by a Presidential candidate to union labor delegates if the door of Federal employment be kept open to all, irrespective of race, color, or union membership.

Secretary Metcalf's Department should be unionized at once. Its chief function of late has been to placate disgruntled agitators. This it can never do to perfection until its official head and the entire staff are made union members in good and regular standing. How long does the country suppose that the opponents of the open shop are going to remain satisfied with an executive department which serves simply as a pigeon-hole for complaints made by those who want a monopoly of jobs? When the President's "old comrade," Mr. Hertzkovits, presented the miners' petition in behalf of their Colorado brethren, the petition was promptly turned over to this new Federal Circumlocution Office. The Central Federation of Labor telegraphed Secretary Metcalf to prevent the departure of the *St. Louis*, and the lethargic response was accountable for the liner's escape to a port where her repairs can be made more cheaply. The various unions of musicians are protesting against the importation of competitors who will make sweet melody at a lower wage than seven dollars per diem. Secretary Metcalf has responded by ordering the immigration officials to question all musicians arriving at our ports whether they come under "contract for the purpose of taking the places of American musicians." If so, they are to be deported, unless the courts step in and declare that musicians are "artists," and therefore not subject to the contract-labor clause. It is humiliating to see a Cabinet officer charged with mapping out the policy of a new executive bureau forced into the rôle of an humble adjunct to a political machine. He is standing up manfully to the job, however, and shows all the attributes of a well-trained butler who can be kicked from behind without moving a facial muscle.

The Fall River cotton mill operatives have discarded the notion that half a loaf is better than no bread. Within the last twelve months their lot has changed from bad to worse wtih remarkable rapidity. First, their wages were cut 10 per cent.; next, the running time of the mills was heavily curtailed; and recently they were told that on July 25 their pay would be reduced 12½ per cent. more. The fear that the operatives would be driven to extreme measures was justified when the five unions in Fall River, by a vote of about four to one, decided to strike on Monday, July 25. At least 30,000 hands will be affected. The idea of the manufacturers was to reduce wages from a basis of 19.8 cents per cut of cloth to 17.32 cents. In 1898, when the industry was at a very low point, the price for weaving was 16 cents. It seems, therefore, that the operatives are rapidly getting back to the conditions which prevailed when, according to the Chicago platform, the Republican party "found the country, after four years of Democratic rule, in evil plight, oppressed with misfortune, and doubtful of the future."

As for the mill-owners, their attitude has changed of late. Some time ago they freely announced that it was better for them to keep on running their plants, despite the extraordinary handicap of Sully prices and the refusal of the public to buy goods at their figures, than to close down and allow their help to be scattered. What has changed their minds? Possibly, for one thing, the fact that they have gone as far in accumulating goods as they dare. The stocks on hand in Fall River are estimated at 1,500,000 pieces, which, at the rate at which orders have been received in recent weeks, will enable the mills to ship goods for some time to come if they do not make a yard of cloth. But probably the real motive is this: Earlier in the year they were in doubt about the future price of cotton. Quotations were then high, and the public would not buy the goods; but if, on account of a continued shortage, the raw material should remain at exceptional figures, it might be safe to manufacture to stock—the masses might have to pay the bill in the end. But with spot cotton quoted to-day at about 11 cents, as against the materially lower figures now predicted for the new crop, a prudent mill-owner would hardly feel like piling up goods made from raw material at current prices, unless he could economize sharply in other directions. But how is the strike going to affect the political situation in Massachusetts? Canada is buying American cotton goods at the rate of $2,300,000 a year. Under reciprocity she would probably take very much more. Perhaps the strikers will call Lodge's attention to this.

A fluttered protectionist contemporary, after kindly explaining that the present shortage in beef could not have been mitigated by allowing the free ingress of meats from Canada and Australia, asks pertinently, "Why should people be discouraged by the prospect of a meat famine? There are good things to eat besides beef and pork. Moreover, it should be borne in mind that plain living promotes high thinking, and we can never have too much of self-restraint . . . in this country." This is positively delicious. But why was not the same tone adopted during the anthracite coal strike, when the Dingley tariff prevented the import of foreign coal? Why should people have been discouraged by the coal famine? There were good things to burn besides coal. Moreover, it should have been borne in mind that sitting on a red-hot stove is not conducive to the self-restraint of which we can never have too much in this country. The protectionists have been boasting for years that the American workman, thanks to the tariff, is the only laborer on earth who can eat meat three times a day. Are they now going to change the slogan from "the full dinner-pail" to "the stuffed vegetable-basket"? In their sudden conversion to vegetarianism, the "stand-patters" should not forget to recommend "cereal sausages," which "look just like other sausages until you eat them." Then there is sawdust, which, we know,

> ". . . is cheap by the ton
> And it nourishes one,
> And that's the main object of food."

As the talk of Mr. Root for Governor is revived, the knives of the Odell machine flash out again. The Chairman-Governor is filled with painful forebodings about the effect of "Federal interference" in the affairs of this State. Everything would be lovely if only the President would keep his hands off, but the noble Republicans of New York simply will not endure dictation—that is, from anybody except Odell. Some of his followers are more outspokenly ugly. "If Roosevelt insists upon nominating a Governor, let him do the electing," they say. All which simply shows that the Republican machine dreads a nominee who would not only stand well with the people and have a chance of carrying the State, but would be his own master in the Governor's chair. Hence the implacable hostility of Odell to Mr. Root, and his demand for a candidate who may or may not run well—that is a secondary consideration—but whose heart in either victory or defeat will be true to the machine.

It is some time since Secretary Taft last told Americans that they must not talk about Philippine independence, since that kind of thing could only provoke revolutionary outbreaks in the isl-

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ands. He assured us, too, that his view was shared by the most intelligent and patriotic Filipinos, notably those of the Federal party, of which *La Democracia* is the organ. But in the issue of that journal for May 31 we find a statement of wholly opposite tenor. Discussing the capture of the *insurrecto* Ricarte, it said that his failure was a complete proof that the country did not sympathize with agitators like him. Then it added significantly: "Therefore, there is no good reason for objecting that a statement of what our final political destiny is to be would lead to revolution. It is a live question [*de verdadera actualidad*], this demand upon the parties that they take a more decided stand, made by the Independence League, composed of a great many distinguished citizens of the United States." Thus Secretary Taft will perceive that the incendiary news about Americans desiring independence for other people as well as for themselves has reached the Philippines without at once setting everything ablaze.

There are, according to the "Official Roster" of January 1, 1904, more than 2,200 Americans holding office under the Philippine Government, exclusive of teachers. That is a very respectable number. And the offices held are the fattest there are in the archipelago. With very few exceptions, mostly in the judiciary, all the high salaries are drawn by Americans. Open the Roster at random, and we find that all the $7,000 or $5,000 or $2,250, or $1,800 or $1,400 jobs are in the hands of "gentlemen from Indiana" or other favored States, while it is not till you get down to the $800 or $580 or $216 class that you begin to encounter native names. No candid American, going through this official register, could deny that it presented strong *prima-facie* evidence that the offices in the Philippines had been exploited for the benefit of Americans. If such a tell-tale roster had been produced before 1898, we should all have pointed to it as proof of the shamelessness of the Spaniards in squeezing the juice out of the Filipino orange. We have had the curiosity to analyze a few sections of the Official Roster. Take the Executive Department. Here we find 175 American office-holders and 111 natives. The average salary drawn by the Americans is a little more than $1,800. Their stipends range from $20,500 down to $900. For the Filipino incumbents the average pay is $584. In other branches of the Government the comparison would bear still harder upon the natives, since three of them draw $5,000 each as members of the Philippine Commission, thus raising the average considerably. The American Commissioners, we note, are paid from $15,000 to $20,500, and their private secretaries $2,400, as against $1,400 for the native secretaries. This discrimination against natives doing practically the same work as Americans runs through the whole system. You cannot pick up a current report of appointments without encountering it.

Two widely divergent views upon racial questions were promulgated on Thursday, one by Mr. Justice Brewer of the Supreme Court, in an address at Milwaukee, and the other by the Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, in the British House of Commons. Justice Brewer declared that the time would come when this country would be as heartily ashamed of the Chinese Exclusion acts as Massachusetts now is of the witchcraft persecution. It is America's duty, he contended, to merge into one great composite photograph all the nations and races of the earth. In contrast to this catholic attitude of our republican jurist was the chauvinistic utterance of the apostle of Empire. While advocating the policy of importing gangs of coolies into the Transvaal, he based his defence upon the allegation that "white laborers would not work with black laborers on equal terms." As a matter of fact, this is notoriously untrue. In New Orleans, for instance, there are hundreds of instances of just this very thing—of whites and blacks working together at the same job and at the same wage. Mr. Chamberlain, after commending the supposed attitude of the white laborer to the negro, added: "As the dominant race, if we admitted equality with inferior races, we should lose the power which gave us our dominance."

That the Vladivostok squadron is commanded by an officer of dash and daring has been evident since its first successful raid. Now that his ships have actually appeared off the bay which leads to Tokio and Yokohama, his movements begin to recall John Paul Jones's famous raid upon the English coast. In the nature of things, the Russian admiral, be he Skrydloff or some one else, is likely to achieve similar results. Jones fairly threw London into a panic, and sent marine-insurance rates up to almost unheard-of figures. The mere presence of the Vladivostok squadron must, by alarming neutral carriers, do an immense amount of harm, of which the sinking of the *Knight Commander* and the capture of other vessels will be small items. Since the Russians have doubled on their tracks, and are standing towards the Tsugaru Straits, through which they came, it is evident that it is purely a raid upon merchant vessels with which we have to deal, and that for the present, at least, there is no thought of any attempt to join the Port Arthur fleet. Like Jones, the Russians realize that their safety lies in mobility. The total failure of their adversaries to "contain" them at Vladivostok must make them feel something of the contempt for the Japanese as tacticians which our naval captains had for their English rivals in 1812. This naval failure of the Japanese certainly calls for an explanation.

After a very stubborn resistance the Russians have been beaten back from Ta-Che-Kiao, having previously evacuated Niu-Chwang, which has for a long time awaited this contingency. The taking of Ta-Che-Kiao is of the highest strategic importance. It cuts the railroad to Niu-Chwang, and at one blow deprives the Russian army of all supplies by rail from western Mantchuria and China. By this time the Japanese, whose transports have for several days lain off Yin-kow, are probably in possession of that port, without any serious call upon the forces which are driving the Russian right back upon Kuropatkin at Liao-yang. Only the existence of the much-battered Port Arthur squadron clouds this brilliant conclusion of the Mantchurian campaign. From now on, it seems merely a question how far the Japanese can safely press their advantage. The rainy season, which may have embarrassed the Russians on the river plain, has obviously done little to impede the movements of the Japanese in the mountains. Now the situation changes; to clinch their advantage they must apparently fight Kuropatkin on level ground of his own choosing.

If Merry del Val has put his resignation at the Pope's disposal, as is credibly reported, the crisis between the Vatican and the French Government must be regarded as acute. The withdrawal of the Papal Secretary would mean that the way was to be cleared for a policy of conciliation such as Rampolla consistently followed. In fact, the present issue might easily be evaded by postponing to the Greek Kalends the cases of the French bishops who are technically insubordinate. If, on the contrary, Pius X. refuses to accept Merry del Val's resignation, it will show that the Pope, declining a convenient scapegoat, accepts the full responsibility for the recent policy towards France. A certain nobility in this uncompromising attitude does not alter the fact that other successors of Peter have known that it was anachronistic. In striking contrast with the increasing tension between the Pope and the President are the constantly better relations between the Vatican and the Quirinal. This suggests that only a punctilio, the nominal suzerainty of Rome, separates the Church and the new régime in Italy, while in France the quarrel is about vital matters—the rights of instruction, State support, and the internal discipline of the hierarchy.

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THE MORAL OF FOLK.

Mr. Folk's nomination for Governor of Missouri is an event of national significance. Effected as it was upon the ruins of two political machines in alliance to defeat him; conferred by an aroused people in defiance of the politicians; bestowed upon a young man unknown except for the fearless vigor with which he had uncovered gigantic corruption and prosecuted the guilty, no matter what their social standing or political influence, it is a political occurrence far overleaping the boundaries of Missouri. What it means for the country at large was perceived by President Roosevelt when, with a fine impulse which did him honor, he urged his own party to endorse Mr. Folk and so make his election unanimous. The colder-blooded Republican managers overruled the President, as in so many other particulars; but he could see, if they could not, what was implied in the delight of the people in honoring a man like Joseph Folk.

It shows how surely true public service is appreciated, and how eager are Americans to reward it. As an example of the way in which political advancement may be won in this country, Mr. Folk's career is inspiring. Compare his extraordinary fame and rapid promotion with the fate of the time-servers and the trucklers. They spin plots and humiliate themselves and do dirty work in order to secure the slow and uncertain favor of the machine, while Mr. Folk passes over their heads simply by becoming the embodiment of stern justice in pursuit of political scoundrels. It is a wonderful appeal to young men entering upon public life. Let them look on Folk and on, for example, Timothy Woodruff, and decide which one knows the true way to the heart of the American people, as also to political honors.

Mr. Folk's success makes the professional politicians look silly. He violates every one of their maxims of political wisdom, yet triumphs in a way their wildest dreams never pictured as possible. It is Emerson's man of "native force" rising superior to old and mouldy conventionalities. Courage, directness, frankness, simple devotion to public duty—these are again shown by Mr. Folk to be the qualities which sway the world. Even in the moment of his acclaim by the State convention, he spurned the ordinary political humbug of such occasions. He had no wishy-washy words about letting by-gones be by-gones, and no enemies to punish, and all turning in to win a great victory for the party. No, the disreputable element he had fought he announced that he meant to pursue "with unrelenting warfare to the end." Between him and them it must be no favors asked and no quarter given. He was proud of their hatred, and proposed to deserve it more richly in the future. Evidently, the honest farmers of Missouri who controlled the Convention for Mr. Folk had not mistaken their man. Hack politicians and the machine newspapers thought them a "funny lot," so innocent of political wiles were they; but they at least knew enough to admire a brave man and efficient public servant, and to stick to him through thick and thin.

The uncompromising and successful war which Mr. Folk has waged upon the most insidious and dangerous form of American political corruption, and the national prominence which has come to him in consequence, are omens full of good cheer. They show that the people are not ready to submit in servile fashion to the reign of the briber and the blackmailer; that the methods of rich corruptionists do awaken shame and indignation; that citizens are everywhere looking anxiously for the man who will see that justice is done though the bosses fall. What Mr. Folk has accomplished in St. Louis, others will be stirred to attempt in other cities. Reform is as infectious as corruption. Everywhere the people are ready to applaud and follow men who will lead in the work of purifying the public service. Americans are invincible optimists: for every evil they are confident that the remedy will be found. And the rise from time to time of men like Mr. Folk—men who would break the old patterns and pluck by the beard criminals long dwelling in fancied security—goes far, it must be admitted, to justify this springing of eternal hope.

Such a career as that of Mr. Folk illustrates the possibilities, and also the perils, of a new type of public man which we seem now to be producing. He has, first of all, to make the impression of being personally honest. That is the prime essential. Another one, as alleged by a cynical friend of ours, is to possess the art of being a "good advertiser." *That* Mr. Folk is not. Thereby he avoids a danger. To do a good piece of work without feeling compelled to go about bragging of it is safer as well as more dignified and reassuring than forever to be rushing where the fierce limelight beats. But the final test is persistence and consistency: never submitting or yielding; hating a compromise with sin as much as sin itself; following up promise with performance—in a word, "making good." In this Mr. Folk has an undeniable advantage over, let us say, both Mr. Jerome and Mr. Roosevelt. As to them, we still have to say, as Garibaldi did of Napoleon III., when the latter seemed at the height of his power, "We must wait and see."

THE STRIKERS' OBJECTIVE.

Amid the exasperation and even alarm caused by the renewal of the strike in the packing industry, it is necessary to keep one's head clear in order to perceive exactly what it is the strikers are doing and aiming at. We see at once that they are imitating the most offensive methods of the Trusts which they denounce. President Donnelly's haughty demand upon the allied trades, "I insist upon a general strike at once, with the negotiations to come afterwards," could not better hit off the arrogant tone of the presiding officer at a corporation meeting, "Vote first and discuss afterwards." To copy the worst features of industrial or financial monopolies seems, in fact, to be the present cue of the labor unions. But their animus and secret purposes may best be gathered from their most pronounced enmities. Show me what you most hate, and I will tell you what you are.

Now, it is not the consuming public that the strikers desire to hurt. Doubtless they count upon the general inconvenience, caused by the strike, to force a settlement. But their anger is not directed that way, nor even mainly against their employers. Their chief enemy they consider the free workingman. Him they pursue with savage ferocity. The existence of a body of non-union men ready to work is to them the intolerable thing. By denunciation, by outlawry, by clubbing and burning and shooting, they seek to terrorize men who refuse to be their fellow-slaves in the union, and to perfect their own monopoly. In other words, the anti-monopoly laboring man is marked out for the especial vengeance of the labor unions.

Nor can it be said that the difficulty would be solved if all hands would join the unions. The unions do not want all hands. They wish to remain a small favored class. The theory of unionism, like the theory of protection, breaks down the moment it is universally applied. Both systems propose to give a greedy few an advantage over the many. As protectionists rage against importers, so labor unions do against free workingmen. In both cases a monopoly is furious with those who threaten it. Labor unions represent certainly less than 20 per cent. of American workingmen. Yet they assume to speak for all, and are ready to hunt to death the 80 per cent. on the outside, whenever in any way it competes with them.

Next to the independent workmen, the strikers hate the State authorities who protect him in his rights. The "right to work" (the old *droit du travail* converted into the new-style *droit au travail*) is vested only in a labor union; and so the "strike-breaker," with the policeman or militiaman who prevents him from being murdered, becomes at once a deadly enemy. There can be no mistaking the significance of this animosity. In it the labor union stands revealed not only as the foe of public order, but of the sovereignty of

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the State itself. We see in the raging of unionism whenever the police or the military power is invoked against its violent methods, the confession that it means eventually to usurp the functions of government. To crush out free labor; to frighten or fetter the State—those are the two objectives of labor leaders of the militant type.

Just at present they are no doubt counting upon political aid. This is Presidential year, and Republican politicians are nervous. They recall the unsettled strike at Homestead in 1892, and what followed in the election. On the other hand, the strikers remember the coal strike of 1900, in which the men won, owing to Senator Hanna, and, above all, the anthracite strike of 1902, with President Roosevelt's intervention. Can he not now, as a candidate, be worried into doing something to end the meat strike?

We think he will let it severely alone. Whatever may be thought of his action in the coal strike two years ago, the situation to-day is very different. Then we were confronted with an impending failure of a necessary of life. That is not the case at present. There are plenty of temporary substitutes for meat. The more important difference, however, lies in the fact that now the employers are ready to carry on their business and supply the country if only protected from violence. The mine-owners did not take that position in the early months of the strike in 1902. No attempt was made to work the mines. The strikers asserted, with some show of plausibility, that the employers could not secure men to dig the coal. But the employing packers would evidently have no difficulty in replacing the strikers. The trade is easy to learn. Men in plenty are out of a job, and come forward. It is plainly a case, therefore, if the strikers persist, where the State should demonstrate that it, and not the union, is the sovereign power. If Mr. Roosevelt feels called upon to say anything at all to the appealing or threatening strikers, it should be only a reaffirmation of the language which he used in praise of President Cleveland's resolute dealing with another Chicago strike—that of 1894—"The reckless labor agitator who arouses the mob to riot and bloodshed is, in the last analysis, the most dangerous of the workingman's enemies. This man is a real peril; so is his sympathizer, the legislator, who, to catch votes, denounces the judiciary and the military because they put down mobs."

PROPHETS OF PROGRESSIVE DEMOCRACY.

Within the last decade there has arisen among us what may fairly be termed a new school of social philosophy. The impulses which gave it birth are, negatively, skepticism regarding the colorless scientific study of social science, and, positively, an unreasoned feeling that if sympathy with the masses is only present, active work in their behalf will remove the doubts which settle on the old-fashioned student of politics and society. This new attitude may not unfairly be said to characterize those interested in such excellent organizations as the People's Institute of this city and similar bodies. It finds utterance in Mr. John Graham Brooks's 'Social Unrest,' and in many of the writings of the Rev. Lyman Abbott. It has numerous traits that are wholly admirable, but we believe it has the defects also of its quality.

What seems to some to be one of the most striking errors of this new school is the assurance with which, despite occasional protestations of fallibility, they diagnose the thoughts, the feelings, and the aspirations of "the masses." Their brows are warmed in the atmosphere of the People's Lyceum, and they sometimes mistake the artificial heat of the forum for the normal temperature of the popular pulse. They never hear nature mockingly whisper, "So hot, little man," when they reach the sidewalk, but carry the fervor of the crowd from the turmoil of the street to the quiet of the study.

A recent outline of the ideals of Progressive Democracy is given by the Managing Director of the People's Institute in this city. The programme deserves the careful consideration of all students of public opinion, for it is based upon a painstaking study of the audiences which for years at Cooper Union have heard almost every public issue discussed upon a platform of unquestioned ability and independence. We are told, first, that the masses of the people to-day are socialistic in tendency, though not as a body Socialists; that they favor State and municipal socialism; that even as regards such necessaries as milk, grain, and meat their mind is made up that the production of these commodities should no longer be submitted to the caprice of private individuals and the risks and evils of private monopoly. The masses also, so we are told, demand the repeal of unfair tax laws, and an elision of the enormities of the tariff, though apparently this mandate is less imperative than the establishment of State socialism. In the matter of political method the initiative, the referendum, and the direct primary are the approved methods of bringing in the social millennium; while such features as old-age pensions, compulsory arbitration, and ultimate international peace and disarmament are thrown in to make a good baker's dozen of social ideals.

The appeal which this earnest body of social workers makes to the independent well-wisher of American Democracy, untrammelled by the partisan harness, is unquestionably earnest, and not lightly to be set aside. But it is not unjust to these social reformers to insist at least upon a fair hearing for the old-fashioned programme of social betterment, which, if it cannot claim the suffrages of the Lyceum, is yet, in the opinion of some of its upholders, based upon even solider foundations.

In the first place, the adherents of the older view insist that the generalizations of the new school are, to say the least, premature. The audience at the People's Institute, even though it reach the thousands, is, we are expressly told, "rather constant than variable." Both its constancy and its intelligent interest in the public weal go to show that its opinions are likely to be very different from those of the masses. The study of family budgets, for example, has always notoriously suffered from the fact that the family which keeps a rigid and itemized account of its expenditures is shown by that very fact to be a wholly exceptional family. And a similar generalization may be ventured about the verdicts of the People's Institute. The masses are very hard to discover *en masse*. They consist of thousands of plain people at home, thousands on the street or in places of amusement—sometimes of dissipation. There is no vote so illusive as the "straw vote." And no amount of social sympathy can buttress a proposition built on so flimsy a foundation as this programme of "what the people want."

Moreover, the old-fashioned well-wisher of his kind must insist that as yet social solidarity, however construed, is by comparison with self-interest what a weakling is to an athlete; and that, until social tissue is regenerated, this fact must be reckoned with—even though it involve the rejection of the glittering promises of various kinds of socialism. If experience has not demonstrated that, when possible, it is best to limit the powers of Government rather than enlarge them, the lesson of history must be relearned. Our friends, the social workers and reformers, in their zeal for social salvation and their indifference to individual human nature, seem to forget that there is an alternative ideal to theirs, and one which is still the lodestar of many a patriot. It is the full amplification of individual liberty, where the humblest citizen may sit "under his own vine and fig-tree," with no tax to pay to the tariff baron, with no graft to render to the politician, with no obeisance to make to the labor union, and with no enforced deference to his fellows who find their pleasure in mapping out the way to Utopia.

THE BEET IN TROUBLE AGAIN.

After long vexing this country, the sugar beet has begun to stir up strife in the Philippines. In those gems and glories of the tropic seas, a circular is-

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sued by the American Beet Sugar Association of the United States is making a great sensation. It expresses the usual solicitude for the American laborer. The argument is the same as that employed by the speakers at a recent meeting of the Association, a full account of which is found in the American papers printed at Manila. The keynote of the discussion was struck by a leading "professional" protectionist, who said that this country consumes about 2,400,000 tons of sugar, and that "American citizens should produce 100 per cent. of that output." He did not believe in the policy that has flooded the docks and warehouses of New York with the product of Cuba. Furthermore, he considered Secretary Taft a very dangerous man. "I sincerely hope," he said, "that this Association will not agree to any concession" on Philippine sugar; for in the extension of that industry he saw "the destruction, the absolute destruction," of American beet-sugar growers.

Then followed a speech by the Secretary of the Association, which not only contained some astonishing facts about the cost of labor in the Philippines, but also showed that there is no love lost among "stand-patters." The extension of our coastwise laws to the Philippines means a general advance in freight rates. This, of course, will be a cause of rejoicing to the ship-owners. But the people of the islands will not be able to export their sugar at higher cost of transportation, unless they are granted lower duties at the custom houses of the United States. This is what Secretary Taft is contending for. But, don't you see, we are building up a beet-sugar industry. We have been at it some years, but it is still a sickly infant—already a combine is proposed in order to keep the plants in Michigan from losing money. But the baby beet, though ailing, has strong lungs, and has no intention of allowing the Philippines to make up for the rapacity of the shipping people by offering new competition to the California or Michigan sugar grower. The American ship-owners, says the Secretary of the Beet Sugar Association, had two years to prepare for the enforcement of our coastwise laws in the Philippines, but "they have not laid a keel, and have not provided vessels for the United States and Philippine traffic, as they promised they would when securing the passage of the bill in July, 1902."

Yet Secretary Taft actually glories in the fact that he had an understanding with Lodge that the shipping provision should go over until a bill could be forced through Congress reducing the tariff! The beet growers should have no mistaken ideas regarding the latter question. It is bound to come up at the next session of Congress, says their spokesman. It would have come up at the last session "but for the fact that it seemed wise to the Administration not to take up a matter of the tariff just preceding the national election." "Sugar is sugar the world over. There is a very great menace to the American industry" in the North, in Louisiana, and Texas "and in Hawaii and Porto Rico." The distinction between the Philippines and our other insular dependencies seems, at first glance, rather invidious. But there is plenty of reason for it: labor costs practically nothing in our Asiatic colony, and "experts" state that the islands can easily satisfy the sugar demand of the whole world.

It is a curious fact that, however much one may be wedded to the "American idea," when he lands at Manila he speedily becomes enamored of the "Philippine idea." Our adventurers are not in the Philippines for the pure enjoyment of the thing, but to make money. Others were willing to serve their country by growing sugar in Hawaii, and their country rewarded them with a free market. Manila is several thousand miles farther away than Honolulu, and the climate is more trying, yet no favors follow. Hawaii is counted worthy, but the Philippines are no better than Timbuctoo. The party of protection gloats over the acquisition of the islands, and harps incessantly on the wealth they are going to bring this country. But one great possibility of wealth lies in the sugar lands, yet the Republicans, at the beck of their Oxnards, proclaim, "Cultivate these lands at your peril!"

American investors in the Philippines are told that their sugar must not be imported into the United States because it is produced by laborers who are paid only six cents per day, while the American beet growers pay all the way from $1.25 to $2. The American papers in Manila are up in arms against these statements. They call this talk "political trickery." Accepting the figures given for this country (though they might make some reservations on this point if they knew the extent to which cheap Russian labor is now employed in our beet fields), they deny the assertions regarding the Filipino laborer. First of all, they show that the six-cents-a-day field hand does not exist. Labor, they assert, brings thirty and forty cents in the islands. But the Filipino is dear at forty cents, and the American cheap at several times that figure. Given equal rights in a common market, says a Manila paper, the manufacturer of the United States would drive the employer of Filipino labor out of the market. Furthermore, the native "does not regard the price of his labor as being eternally fixed or incapable of advancement." That shows how ungrateful he is for all we have done for him. Asking higher wages and freer markets is a poor way of showing his fitness for self-government.

SIX MONTHS OF MAYOR M'CLELLAN.

For six months there has presided over the city of New York a Mayor whose personal bearing has left nothing to be desired. A gentleman by instinct and breeding, he has been the very reverse of his last Tammany predecessor, the ruffianly Van Wyck. Citizens who have had business with the Executive, officials of an opposite political faith, and delegates of civic bodies, all unite in testifying to his courtesy and consideration. In the dullest hearings he has expedited matters by searching questions, and he has frequently asked for briefs that he might consider the points at issue more carefully. As a result of his attitude there is a widespread belief in this municipality that Mayor McClellan is doing his best to give us an honest and upright Administration so far as this is possible with the corrupt political machine behind him. That he has repeatedly caused dissatisfaction in Tammany Hall is still further proof that his aims are high.

Indeed, if Mayor McClellan were surrounded by heads of departments of the same high character as those gathered about him by Mr. Low, there is every reason to believe that he would be a more successful executive of the city. Mr. Low's Administration, it must be remembered, had an enormous amount of construction or rebuilding to do before it could settle down to work. Take the Tenement House Department, for instance. It fell to Mr. De Forest and his assistant commissioner, Mr. Veiller, to plan the whole department, to select the permanent personnel, create the very machinery, and obtain the all but endless information necessary for the tasks in hand. Mr. Crain stepped in just in time to profit by this pioneer work. He found the machinery "shaken down" and running smoothly. That it is already showing marked signs of deterioration is the more discreditable to him and to his chief.

In the long run, Mayor McClellan will be judged not by his personal qualities or by his ability to say such admirable and fitting words as those he addressed to the heroes of the *Slocum* disaster who wore the city's uniform. It will, of course, always be written down to his credit that in his first half-year his attitude towards new legislation was only once severely criticised—in the matter of the gas bill, for his stand on which it must be admitted that he had very strong legal support. But the final verdict upon Mayor McClellan's Administration will depend very largely upon the achievements or the failures of his department heads. He will naturally be criticised for his own mistakes of judgment, as, for instance, his approval of every effort made by his third-rate Civil Service Commission to break down the merit system by wholesale exemptions; but the

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burden which he must bear because of the errors or wrongdoings of his subordinates he will find, and already has found, we believe, much more trying. For there can be no doubt that among his numerous Tammany appointees there are many weak and worthless. They, like Mr. Crain, are responsible for what has already become noticeable—a steady falling-off in the city government from the Low standard.

The Police Department is an interesting example. Mr. McAdoo, able and upright, is afflicted by three deputy commissioners who are largely concerned with the discipline of the force. That this is far less stringent than under Gen. Greene is a commonplace. The success of the patrolmen in obtaining the three-platoon system has made them feel that they own the Department, and put a most dangerous spirit into them. Loafing off posts, frequenting saloons, and other methods of "shirking," are made possible by the failure of roundsmen and sergeants to do their duty, and by the astonishing leniency of the deputy commissioners in the trial rooms. So few have been the dismissals—only ten since January 1, about one-fifth the number cashiered by Gen. Greene during the same period last year—and so light the fines, that Mr. McAdoo has been compelled to take two of his deputies severely in hand.

Like the police force, the Department of Health has become less effective under Dr. Darlington than under Commissioner Lederle. Its methods are still far superior to those which prevailed under the Murphy-Sexton régime, for they are honest, even if not free from political taint. Dr. Darlington has resisted a good many demands of politicians, far more than any previous Tammany Commissioner, but his major appointments have been bad, for the reason that they are due to political dictation. The assistant sanitary superintendents, for example, in Brooklyn, Queens, and the Bronx, are the direct choice of McCarren, Cassidy, and Haffen, and even "Tim" Sullivan has secured one of these nice "jobs" for a henchman who is neither a sanitarian nor a capable superintendent. These borough superintendents have supreme charge of the work in their departments, and their selection for political reasons is a direct insult to the medical profession. On the other hand, Dr. Darlington has seen the necessity of retaining many of Dr. Lederle's appointees, and has done so despite severe pressure. To these "holdovers" is largely due the fact that the standard of achievement in this borough is still high, while sinking steadily in the other subdivisions of the city.

In the Park Department the situation is precisely what was to be expected under a Pallas. The civil-service laws are being ignored. Many experienced foremen and gardeners have been dismissed or have left, partly because of the open friction between the Superintendent of Parks and the Commissioner. So poor is the policing of the large outlying pleasure grounds that they not only are being injured, but have become the resort of the immoral and vicious to a startling degree. It is but fair to say, however, that the police are under the control of Mr. McAdoo, and not of Mr. Pallas. But even this circumstance does not mitigate in any way Mr. Pallas's gross unfitness for his office.

To the Civil Service Commission we have already referred. Aside from its plain desire to "take the starch out" of the service—best illustrated by its futile attempt to exempt the deputy tax commissioners, which the mayor abetted—its work has been creditable in only one respect: it has kept its current business well in hand, and has established a service record of office-holders, as required by the White law, which should have been done by Mr. Low's Commission. In the Fire Department Croker's influence is worse than ever before. Many of his own followers are willing to admit that his year out of the Department has "spoiled the Chief," and it is believed to be due only to the firmness of the Commissioner that Croker has not gratified personal dislikes and spite by abuse of his authority. The shortcomings of the Building Department are notorious. The censured inspector responsible for the Darlington disaster is not only still in active service, but is to have his salary increased if the superintendent has his way. And an ominous word—"graft"—is freely heard in connection with Mr. Hopper's inspectors as with those of the Tenement Department.

An examination of the other departments would bring out similar retrogression.

DUMPING.

The dress rehearsal of the first act of the comic economic opera, "Dumping," was held on July 20, and evinced the masterly leadership of the conductor, Mr. Chamberlain. What the cablegrams designate as "Joseph Chamberlain's Tariff Commission" on the iron and steel trades have filed their preliminary report. As was anticipated, it but re-echoes the views of its creator. In marked contrast to the sage opinions of the non-official ironmasters quoted in the papers a day or so ago, who ascribed the English iron trade's failure to improve to the uncertainty involved in the new fiscal proposals, the commissioners are convinced that the cause of their trouble is the surplus product dumped on the English market by American and German manufacturers. For this untoward evil they see but one remedy—a tariff gate whose bars are to be high or low according to circumstances. For the colonies the bars are to be low; for countries admitting British "wares" on "fair terms" to be fairly low; for others the bars are to be put up to the top notch, unless the offending country will concede a lowering of its own tariff wall.

Of dumping it may be said in the first place that it is but an old foe with a new face. In earlier days it went by the fairer name of "inundation," or the "threatened flooding" of the markets of a new country by the unscrupulous producers of the old world. Defined with precision, it means simply the sale of goods in a foreign market either at an absolute loss, or at a markedly lower figure than is obtained in the home market of the dumping manufacturer. Now this so-called dumping process may take two forms. It may be done at an initial loss, in order to advertise wares, or possibly to drive out small competitors; or it may be practised in order to clear the home market of a surplus and thus maintain monopoly prices in the home market. It is not necessary to go abroad to find the first kind of dumping. Every grocer who sells sugar below cost in order to make custom for his other wares, is a dumper. Where this practice in England is resorted to once by a foreign producer, it is practised by Englishman against Englishman a hundred times. Moreover, it involves a certain initial loss and a doubtful future gain. No tariff can protect against it, nor has the success of this kind of underbidding proved so frequent as to warrant any attempt to prohibit it by law, even if such an attempt were likely to succeed.

The second species of dumping—where a surplus is sent abroad and sold for what it will bring—is commonly the result of a high tariff wall around the dumping country. Such an exclusion of foreign goods often makes possible the Trust or cartell. To remedy the falling profits of English manufacturers, the sagacious advice of the Chamberlain commission is to domesticate the Trust bacillus. In order to escape the fleabite of foreign competition, the British consumer is invited to submit himself to the laws of the domestic monopolist.

Even if it be granted that in special cases the dumping process destroys certain industries, it no less surely creates others. For decades the bounty-fed sugar of Europe was dumped on the English market. As a result the refining of sugar in England suffered, but the low price of sugar created an immense domestic and foreign trade in preserves, confectionery, biscuits, chocolate, and jam. As Mr. Winston S. Churchill and Armitage Smith put it: "The foreigner dumps ship-plates at a price which cannot remunerate him; we retort in ships at a price with which he cannot compete. He dumps his steel and we answer him with machinery. At every

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step our business is a paying transaction. At every step his business is a losing transaction." Another difficulty inevitably attends all attempts to exclude by tariffs such commodities as will be dumped upon the market. A duty high enough to exclude them will *à fortiori* be high enough to exclude all similar articles which the foreigner desires to put on the English market at what is called "a fair price." There is not yet invented a dumpometer which will differentiate the import that is pure, peaceful, and seeking not its own, from its insidious fellow that is only waiting release to dump itself on the market. Even if we grant that all the surplus of competing goods is excluded from British markets, these goods will seek other neutral markets, and there come into competition with the Brummagem wares which perfidious Albion sometimes tries to dispose of throughout the world. The truth of the matter seems to be this, that the knell of certain British industries is tolling. Natural deposits of coal, lime, and iron, and advanced processes of iron and steel production make it inevitable that ultimately England must yield the palm of superiority in these lines of production. The only remaining question is whether the English statesman will be found to recognize the unpleasant situation, and make the transition at the smallest cost to the English people.

In all the discussion of the matter so far, little or nothing has been said about the unfortunate dumpee, the pitiable consumer who has cheapness thrust upon him. But this is only another illustration of the old adage of the forgotten man, or rather of the forgotten millions, betrayed in every legislative assembly where every interest but the public is clamant. The report of the Commission may be used by worshippers of our Dingley monstrosity as an argument in its favor. Such an argument, however, will prove a two-edged sword. Secretary Shaw has just told the country that only an insignificant fraction of our exports sells abroad at a lower price than at home. If this is true, then we are not guilty of dumping. On the other hand, if what Chamberlain's creatures say is true, and we do dump, then our American Trusts, many of them tariff-fed, are robbing the American consumer. Which horn of the dilemma will our Republican friends take?

THE EXHIBITS OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE AT ST. LOUIS.

ST. LOUIS, July 22, 1904.

Whoever passes through the grounds and buildings of the St. Louis Exposition in an objective and critical spirit must be struck by the vastness of its scope and the completeness of its organization. It is in a true sense an Exhibit of the World's Culture. Your correspondent of the issue of June 30 has well portrayed its exterior aspect so far as the lay-out, the architecture, and the whole artistic and landscape picture are concerned. Any attempt to describe in a short article what is contained in these buildings would be futile. Six months of close daily observation would not suffice for the gathering of this vast material. I will therefore attempt to set before your readers only a short sketch of what is considered by all to be the fullest, the most generously equipped, and the most intelligently designed and constructed exhibit in the World's Fair, that of the German Empire. One may judge exhibits from the point of higher culture or from the point of commercial significance. I propose to consider only the former.

Three foreign Governments have designed their representative buildings on historical grounds. The English Government has reproduced the Kensington Garden Orangerie, and the French Government the famous Trianon, each having its peculiar charm and historic flavor; the German Government has chosen for its representative abode a noble replica of the royal palace at Charlottenburg. Nothing could be more typical of national character than these three designs. The Trianon, light, cheerful, and interesting, perfect architectural bric-à-brac; the Orangerie, stiff, square-cut, and unattractive, but in its interior comfortable and inviting; the Charlottenburg "Schloss," proud, dignified, almost imperious in its exterior, and pervaded by governmental atmosphere in its interior. The French and English structures are situated amidst a cluster of other foreign buildings on the flat grounds bordering the west end of the general group of Exposition buildings; the "Schloss" is located a mile away from them, on the high plateau on which the Festival Hall and its Court of States—the architectural crown of the whole Exposition picture—and the Fine Arts Buildings are situated. There it stands in its austere beauty; in shape, contour, and dimensions an exact reproduction of Schlüter's famous design, with its brownish-gray outer coat, its green lantern and cupola on which stands the gilded statue of Fortuna, and its bold front columns, on the pediment of which appears the defiant Hohenzollern motto, "Nec soli cedit."

Its surroundings are beautifully laid out in the garden style of the eighteenth century, and the view from its terraces, which commands the whole tier of Exposition buildings in front, the Festival Hall, cascades and lagoons at the side, and all the State buildings in the rear, is superb. To soften the somewhat severe aspect of the building, its title, "Das Deutsche Haus," which appears in flowery design and largely lettered on all its approaches, invites the visitor to feel at home there. The interior is lavishly furnished, and contains reproductions, in the different apartments, of the original decorative designs of the state chambers of the Berlin royal palace. The genius of Schlüter is nowhere better visible than in the ceiling of the red-velvet chamber, where are now exposed in a glass case the principal pieces of plate presented to the German Emperor by one hundred towns on the occasion of his marriage in 1881. A full description of these chambers, including the Oak Gallery, the galloon room (*Tressen-Zimmer*), the Brandenburg Gallery, and of the Emperor's collection of Gobelins, is given in an *édition de luxe* catalogue, just issued, of which mention will be made later. The whole arrangement reflects great credit on Architect Mohring, a member of Dr. Lewald's (the German Commissioner's) staff. It is due to the latter's sagacity and grasp of the situation that the site on which this imposing structure stands was secured. He was sent to St. Louis by the Emperor nearly two years ago, and, while the other Governments were deliberating whether to participate in the Exposition or not, he was on the ground and gained for his Government not only the finest position, but also spaces and locations in the Exhibit buildings which in area and prominence have aided in gaining for all departments such well-deserved credit.

In viewing these German exhibits as a whole, a general impression forces itself upon the observer that it is the Empire—the State—that is exhibiting, and not the individual exhibitors. If you traverse, for instance, the Varied Industries Building and see the exhibits of others, not German, grouped collectively under the heads of their respective countries, you seem to notice only the individuals or firms displaying their wares and products; but in the enormous space allotted to "Germany" in that building, you are made to feel, as soon as you pass the sign with the black eagle, that it is the Empire which is exhibiting, and that the exhibitors are only the forces which have been marshalled under its ægis and under its powerful direction. Everything is ordered with elaborate care and uniformity, and a hundred exhibitors appear as though they were in one grand hall instead of in so many booths. While, in any other part of the building, the eye, looking upward, meets the naked timbers and trusses which sustain the roof, in the "Germany" part of the building all these are covered with Gobelins and tapestry, entwining every column and beam, all arranged in exquisite color schemes, giving to these lofty places a cathedral-like appearance. The tasteful and original arrangement of this department, as well as of those in other buildings, was designed and executed by the architect, Dr. Schmitz, a member of the German Commissioner's staff.

The vast space occupied by Germany's "industrial products" in this building is divided into fifty-nine groups, one of which, No. 2, the Hall of Honor, is a perfect gem. Space forbids any even approximate description of the contents. Suffice it to say that there are on exhibition thirty-six fully furnished and decorated rooms, each with hangings, carpets, rugs, wall pictures, originally designed for every sort of room used in families of ease and culture. One may, of course, find occasion to question the taste and general make-up of some of these rooms—much of the furniture seems heavy and clumsy, though aristocratic; but there is much of enchanting beauty. Among the prominent industry groups are those of amber, of which there are solid columns; of ceramics, cast and wrought iron, silver and goldsmith's products, etc. There is a gracefully designed open court, with a fountain in the centre, around which, in a semicircle, some of the choicest rooms just described are arranged.

Fully as rich as the exhibits in this building, though not occupying as much space, are those in the Liberal Arts, Manufac-

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tures, Electricity, Machinery, Mines and Metallurgy, Transportation, Agriculture, and Forestry Buildings. Many of these, as well as the German paintings in the Fine Art Galleries, will very likely be reported to you by specialists in those various branches. I will confine myself to a cursory description of the German educational exhibit. There is, perhaps, no specific department so well and so fully represented at this exposition as the educational. All countries, foreign and American, all cities, universities, and colleges, seem to have vied with each other to present to the world the best they have accomplished in the line of education. A walk through the palace of education is a delight to the educator and the educated. Whichever way the eye turns, every step of instruction in the ascending scale from the kindergarten to the post-graduate course, from the schools for the feeble-minded, the deaf and dumb, and the blind, to the highest college room, can be followed in all its numberless phases; and no pessimist as to the ultimate fate of the race who has the least amount of imagination and intuition, can enter these halls without passing out of them an optimist. It is the unanimous judgment of all educators who have visited and examined these exhibits, that the German educational department towers far above them all in quantity and quality, in systematic arrangement, in the wealth and variety of material collected and presented, in the intelligent classification of every branch of human knowledge, and in the exposition of the methods and results of every phase of scientific research.

The department is presided over by Professor Bahlsen of Berlin, under whose intelligent and gentlemanly guidance the visitor finds it easy to comprehend the general arrangement. A closer examination of the various groups shows the scheme of the whole arrangement. To use the terms of the catalogue, there are three grand divisions: *Lehrgegenstände*, *Lehrmittel*, and *Lehrmethoden*, which, roughly translated, stand for subjects, means, and methods of teaching. The demonstration of each of these is carried out to the minutest details. Entering from the northeast, we come upon an aisle on the sides of which are placed tables giving in large print the educational statistics of the Empire. It is significant that, among the thirty tables, there are only five dealing with the Empire as a whole, and twenty-five relating to Prussia; but, upon reading the specific article devoted to education in the catalogue, this anomaly is easily understood. The tables are arranged with the well-known German thoroughness, and give statistics on every conceivable point covering high schools, common schools, male and female seminaries and gymnasiums, their attendance, cost of maintenance and teaching, salaries of teachers, and other innumerable items, some of them without significance and merely technical. I have no data at hand for comparison of these with our American standards. Picking out a few figures at random, I find that the cost of a pupil in the common school of the Empire in 1891-2 was about 40 marks, or ten dollars, whereas in Prussia it was 47.60 marks; that there were 66 scholars to each teacher; that the average salaries of male teachers were 2,401 marks in the city and 1,693 in the country schools, and of female teachers 1,599 and 1,321 respectively! Compared with our American standards, these are pitiful remunerations for this high corps of educators.

On each side of this and other parallel aisles in partitioned rooms and cabinets are aligned the educational exhibits of forty of the largest cities of the Empire. These comprise models and pictures of school buildings, gymnasiums, workshops, and museums, some entire models of school rooms with their interior equipment, with tables for each school containing specifications of the teaching system, specimens of the work done, pictures, charts, objects for nature study, and whatever is needful to illustrate historical, geographical, or physical subjects. The wealth of these exhibits is beyond anything in that line under the roof of the building. The area occupied is about 4,000 square feet, more than double that of any other foreign educational exhibit. To the left of the east entrance are shown in profusion the scientific instruments and instruments of precision used in research and in the conducting of lectures; further on, the medical and surgical, biological, zoölogical, and botanical sections. Among these a Röntgen X-ray cabinet, fully equipped, is open to interested visitors, and demonstrations are conducted by an intelligent attendant. One section is filled with large models of universities and technical high schools, with plans and elevations showing their interior arrangements. To the left of the main south entrance is the Hall of Honor, tastefully decorated with yellow satin, devoted to the several academies of science, whose reports, in beautiful binding, are arranged in elegant bookcases along the walls. A fine marble bust of the Emperor is placed on a pedestal in the middle of the room.

The chemical exhibit is in the Electricity Building. It is replete with the products of German chemical research, and a delight to the specialist. Hundreds of specimens of the most recent results of analytical and synthetical investigation are here exposed, together with the literature pertaining to each specific subject. To those of us gray heads who used to do laboratory work abroad in the early forties, one of the most interesting exhibits is the reproduction of Justus Liebig's laboratory in 1835, with the tools and apparatus which this great protagonist of modern chemistry introduced, and which were eagerly copied by all contemporary chemical students. An alchemist's laboratory of the 15th to 17th century has also a deep historical interest.

Taken all in all, these exhibits show that they are the result of nearly two years of careful and thorough study, of masterful grasp of the situation, of learned as well as brilliant execution, and of unstinted money. The Reichstag appropriated three and one-half million marks for the purposes of the Exposition, most of which has been expended. And, finally, when we come to compare the exhibits of other foreign countries, which are also deserving of the highest praise, with those of Germany, we cannot help recalling the old Latin adage: "Si duo faciunt idem, non est idem."

Special mention should be made of the 'Official Catalogue of the International Exposition, St. Louis, 1904,' English edition, of which, in an *édition de luxe*, only 300 copies have been printed. It is a quarto volume of 538 pages, bound in elegant gray sheepskin, printed with antique Roman type, "specially cast in the Imperial Printing-Office," beautifully illuminated in varied colors, with heraldic designs and initials, fully illustrated, and replete with information. It is a perfect encyclopædia of the history, development, and present condition of every governmental interest of the Empire, composed by twenty-nine of the most learned and noted specialists on as many different subjects, each article a lucidly written essay, full of interesting statistics, and handled with the well-known thoroughness of German professors. These essays occupy 358 pages of the book; the remaining 180 pages contain the real catalogue, wherein every article on exhibition is enumerated under its appropriate head, in a skilfully arranged scheme. W. T.

MIRABEAU TONNEAU.

PARIS, July 13, 1904.

The great Mirabeau had a brother, Viscount Mirabeau, who was known in his time as Mirabeau Tonneau. M. Eugène Berger, who died not long ago, devoted the last years of his life to the composition of a book on this younger brother of the famous orator. He had not given his conscientious work its final touches, but his family and friends have paid a tribute to his memory by publishing it as he left it. The choice of Mirabeau Tonneau as a hero seems singular at first; but he lived in such troubled times, he was such an ardent champion of the old régime in opposition to his brother, his military life took him to so many places, that the biographer found the means of writing a very interesting work. "In any other family but mine," once said the Viscount Mirabeau, "I should be considered a man of sense and a rogue [*mauvais sujet*]. In my family I am rated a fool, but a worthy fellow."

He was born in Paris, November 30, 1754, the last of five children, and, according to the fashion of the time, was destined to enter the order of Malta; he was for a long time called only Chevalier. (The eldest living child became a nun at Montargis; another married Count du Saillant; the future orator Gabriel came third; Louise became the Marchioness of Cabris; Boniface, the second son, was our Chevalier.) M. de Loménie has described, in his book on Mirabeau, the stormy life of the Mirabeau family. The Chevalier served for some time as an officer in a regiment of Lorraine; from Lorraine he went to Malta to accomplish his novitiate. The life led at Malta was far from edifying, and after some scandal the Chevalier was obliged to return to France. Boniface de Riquetti seemed to belong to another epoch. The eighteenth century tolerated all possible vices, but proscribed whatever offended *le bon goût;* intemperance was not the fashion, and the Chevalier, who drank like a Templar, and who for this reason was nicknamed Tonneau, ought to have lived in the time of the Grand Prieur de Vendôme, or of the Marquis de la Fare.

His family did not set the young Chevalier examples in virtue. Most people know the episode of Mirabeau and Madame de Monnier's love affairs, when Mirabeau was shut up in the Fort de Joux, the imprudence of the two lovers, their flight to Holland, their life in Amsterdam, their extradition and arrest, and Mirabeau's impris-

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onment in the castle of Vincennes. The 'Letters to Sophie' are no longer read. "They seem," says M. Berger, "like a confused mixture of familiar confidences, of social theories, of rhetorical phrases borrowed partly from Rousseau's 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' partly from the crude outpourings of Diderot." They are, so to speak, the memorial of the captivity at Vincennes. The Chevalier remained philosophically a stranger to the quarrels and troubles of his family. His elder brother judged him with great severity, and in the 'Letters to Sophie' spoke of him as a sort of burlesque personage, incapable of anything, and quite lost to society.

The American war was a piece of good fortune for the Chevalier; it took him out of his low pleasures and his monetary difficulties. France had espoused with enthusiasm the cause of the revolted colonies. The salons of the time, those of Madame Necker, of Madame d'Houdetot, of the Beauveaux and Noailles, became familiar with the names of Rhode Island, of Massachusetts, of Vermont, of New Hampshire. The Chevalier followed the example set by the Duke de Lauzun, the Dillons, the Lemeths, Charles de Damas, Custine, Chastellux, the Prince de Broglie, Count de Ségur, and many others. He was allowed to quit his regiment, and left Brest on the second of February, 1780, in the squadron which took over to America the Saint-Simon brigade, composed of the Touraine regiment together with a battalion of Royal-Comtois and a detachment of artillery. He landed on the twenty-second of March at Fort de France, in Martinique, where M. de Bouillé was Governor, and afterwards went to San Domingo, where he had the yellow fever and nearly died. His regiment finally went to Florida, and joined first Lafayette and afterwards Washington and Rochambeau. In October, 1781, the Americans and French besieged Yorktown, defended by Lord Cornwallis. The Chevalier was on the staff of his division, and could therefore follow all the details of the operations, and approach the principal Frenchmen who fought with the Americans — Lafayette, Rochambeau, the two Visménils, M. de Saint-Simon, Charles de Damas, the Viscount de Noailles, M. de Choisy, Charles and Alexandre de Lameth, Robert Dillon, D'Aboville, Philippe de Custine, Lauzun.

"These officers," writes M. Berger, "all noblemen, and some of them of high birth, whom the Revolution was soon to divide profoundly and to throw into opposite ways, were then united by the same feeling of national honor, by a common desire to efface the humiliations of the Seven Years' War. The attack on Yorktown, in which Rochambeau's divisions had the leading part, was conducted briskly, *à la française*."

The capitulation took place on the 19th of October, and the Chevalier de Mirabeau was among the commissioners who presided over the formalities of the surrender. Mirabeau, his brother, became somewhat reconciled to him on hearing this news, and wrote to one of his correspondents: "I have received intelligence of my brother, who was an actor in the most decisive event of the war; and as he is adjutant of his division, he was one of the masters of ceremonies on the day when the troops of Cornwallis were reviewed."

The Chevalier distinguished himself later at Brimstone Hill in St. Kitt's, and obtained leave of absence; he, with two other officers, was charged to take to Versailles a report of the events in the West Indies which succeeded the capitulation of Yorktown. He was presented to the King and received by him with great distinction. He was appointed lieutenant-colonel of the regiment of Touraine, and had to return to San Domingo. The ship on which he sailed was wrecked on the coast of France; he lost everything he had on board, but was indemnified afterwards by the Minister of the Navy. On his return to France he stayed with his regiment in Brittany, at Laval; the regiment mutinied, and was sent in disgrace to Perpignan. There Mirabeau was appointed colonel in 1788, and left the order of Malta in order to get married to Mlle. de Robieu. Troublous times were approaching. On March 21 he was named Deputy to the States-General by order of the noblility of Haut-Limousin. He was very little prepared for his new work, but he had a great deal of assurance; he had a hand in preparing the "cahiers" of the *noblesse*—what we might call its platform. The country gentlemen asked for better management of the finances, the simplification of justice, the remodelling of taxation; they were willing to sacrifice their pecuniary privileges, but insisted on the maintenance of their honorary privileges, intending to remain a distinct body, next to the *Tiers Etat*, but not confounded with it.

The Viscount remained faithful to this programme on the whole; he continued to the end an adversary of democratic pretensions, and from the first day placed himself in opposition to his famous brother Mirabeau. He sat in the States-General at the extreme right. Many people were surprised at this attitude, and explained it only by a desire to act in contradiction to his brother. The marquis, his father, died not long after the opening events of the Revolution, the taking of the Bastille, the capitulation of the Court, and the return of Necker; he had written prophetic lines and seen them verified: "Equity can contrive revolutions, but they are executed by the passions."

The two brothers Mirabeau played no part in the famous night in August when the Assembly, seized by a sort of patriotic enthusiasm, abolished all privileges, feudal rights, tithes, corporations, franchises of cities or provinces, and demolished, so to speak, in six hours the entire edifice of the old régime.

The younger Mirabeau spoke in the Assembly on a number of questions, not always very wisely—on the clergy and its possessions, on administrative subjects, on the military laws; he protested against the abolition of titles of nobility. He soon became as unpopular in Paris as his brother was popular. Finally, as his person was threatened in the streets, as his house was no longer safe, he decided to emigrate, and he was the first to organize a royalist legion, called after him the Légion Mirabeau. He made incessant journeys to Switzerland, to Chambéry, to Turin, to see the Count d'Artois. His legion was obliged to leave Bâle and stayed for a time at Freiburg-im-Breisgau. Difficulties of all sorts paralyzed it. The Viscount, however, began a campaign when war was declared on August 1st, 1792. He entered France without orders, but was soon obliged to retire to Freiburg, where he fell ill and died on the 15th of September. He was not yet thirty-eight years old. Great military honors were paid him by the Prince de Condé and by Prince Esterhazy, who represented the Emperor.

Correspondence.

A SOURCE OF BEN JONSON'S "ALCHEMIST."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Ben Jonson's "Alchemist" is currently regarded as substantially an original work. Professor Köppel, in his *Quellen-Studien, Münchner Beiträge*, 1895, concerned himself primarily with Gifford's notes on the use of Plautus in the play. Professor Hathaway, in his edition of the folio text of 1616 (Inaugural dissertation, *Yale Studies in English*, XVII, 1903), remarks: "No direct source of any moment can be found. The plot of the play is entirely original." He notes the well-known fact of Jonson's indebtedness to Plautus in lesser details of the plot, and endeavors to show that *Subtle* was suggested by a swindler of the time, *Forman*, "reinforced" by the famous Dr. Dee, and that *Face* represents Kelley, who made a tool of Dee. *Dol* is left unexplained. He concludes that, "in the ordinary use of the term sources, there are none for this play. After we have assigned to his predecessors every half-line reference, and enumerated every man whose life might have furnished an idea, Jonson's absolute originality stands out in clearer relief." Professor Schelling, who has recently published the first accurate and complete critical edition of the play (*Belles-Lettres Series*, 1903), enriching it by the fruits of many years' study of Jonson and by most helpful contributions in explication of the allusions with which it teems, does not venture a claim for its author so generously enthusiastic but so rash, and contents himself with recording the minor sources so far ascertained.

Chance has indicated an original to which Jonson was, without doubt, materially indebted. It has provided at least one student with a mild sensation to discover that Jonson's famous play was in great measure suggested by the single comedy written by the martyred Renaissance philosopher, Giordano Bruno (of all people!), namely, "Il Candelaio" (The Candlemaker).

Jonson was, I believe, said by Drummond to be ignorant of Italian, and I find no trace of an English translation of the play, but Bruno's intimate relations with Sidney and others, and, possibly, the fact that the play was published in Paris (1583), would, granting Jonson's ignorance of Italian, suffice to explain his acquaintance with it. Considering Bruno's celebrity in England, we may feel sure that it was well known, both in the Italian and in MS. translations.

In this play, ignorance and credulity are satirized through three characters. *Bonifacio*, sordid and niggardly, desiring the favors of *Vittoria*, seeks the aid of a pretended magician, *Scaramuré*, whose fee he thinks will be less than the costly presents otherwise necessary. *Bartholomeo*, on the other hand, rendered credulous by avarice, has recourse to a charlatan alchemist. *Cencio. Mamphurio*, the absurd pedant, need not be considered. All three suffer loss and shame through imposture and knavish foolery.

Ben Jonson has unified the two dupes and

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the two sharpers. *Sir Epicure Mammon* represents *Bonifacio* and *Bartholomeo* together, combining greed for gold and for "epicurean" pleasure. *Subtle* combines the parts of *Scaramuré*, the magician, and *Cencio*, the alchemist. *Face*, the master-knave, parallels the arch-rascal *Sanguino*, "padre et pastor di marioli." *Dol Common* has for prototype the procuress *Lucia*, in league with *Sanguino*.

To enter into the detail of the plots of the two plays is impossible here. I may, however, be permitted space for one piece of specific evidence that Jonson used the play as being more immediately convincing to those who have not actually compared the two works. *Gioan Bernardo*, the painter, who represents intelligence and common sense, indicts *Cencio*, the pretended alchemist, as fraudulent, just as *Surly* does *Subtle* in Jonson. When challenged to explain the possibility of the transformation of other metals to gold, both make use of the same explanation in the same manner. This can hardly be mere coincidence.

Molière, if I mistake not, has used "Il Candelaio." Its sprightliness and general suggestiveness render it probable that Bruno's comedy was used by other English playwrights than Jonson. This question, with that of Jonson's indebtedness in detail, will form the subject of a special study.

CLARENCE G. CHILD.

BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY, July 16, 1904.

Notes.

Leslie Stephen's 'Hobbes,' in the English Men of Letters series, is among the autumn publications of Macmillan Co., who announce also a small volume for children, 'Is There a Santa Claus?' by Jacob Riis.

The Brownings, like Carlyle, always received with mingled surprise and gratitude the applause and the dollars that came to them across the Atlantic. In the early forties, Elizabeth Barrett was publishing her shorter poems in American periodicals, such as Lowell's *Pioneer* and *Graham's Magazine*, for payment that even nowadays sounds liberal. She was always rather hard on American poets, and saw more bathos than poetry in Poe—an estimate that ranks with her misguided phrases about Euripides; poets are very poor critics of one another. Miss Elizabeth Porter Gould, in her small volume entitled 'The Brownings and America' (Boston: The Poet-Lore Co.), has collected a number of allusions from the Browning Letters and other sources, which illustrate the connection of Browning and his wife with the American painters, poets, and sculptors who haunted Italy in the fifties and sixties, the most conspicuous intimacy being, of course, that with W. W. Story, which, as Browning said, for him at least lasted "forty years without a break." Miss Gould adds to her collection a good deal of evidence as to the business relations of both the Brownings with their various American publishers. What pleased Browning most in all the appreciation that was lavished on him by the New World at a time when it was withheld or given grudgingly by the Old, was the fact that it was the "Official Guide" of the Chicago & Alton Railroad that first published a complete edition of his poems, in monthly issues, from 1872 to 1874, a copy of which is preserved in the British Museum.

For many years tourists enjoying an opportunity to visit California's greatest scenic wonder have met there Galen Clark, the venerable author and publisher of a little book, 'Indians of the Yosemite Valley,' now on our table. Though Mr. Clark is in his ninety-first year, he is still alert and active in mind and body. Nearly fifty years ago he had a serious attack of lung trouble, but the glorious mountain air not only cured him, but hardened him so thoroughly that no exposure to winter storms and snows affects him. It was he who, in 1857, discovered the Mariposa Grove of Big Trees, in which he built a log cabin for sight-seers that became known as "Galen's Hospice." Subsequently he was appointed Guardian of the Yosemite Valley, a position which he held for twenty-four years. He wishes, naturally, to be buried in the valley which has so long been his home. With his own hands he has dug his grave, has quarried his granite tombstone, and placed a young sequoia at each corner of the lot. His book, which embodies some of his experiences, will serve as a useful supplement to the regular guides. The appendix contains hints to visitors, while the main body of the work is devoted to descriptions of the Indians of the region (with whom the author was always on terms of intimacy), their history, customs, and traditions. The concluding pages contain a short Indian vocabulary, some of the names in which—Kusoko, Tokoya, Ahweiyah, Weiyow—have a strangely Japanese and Chinese sound.

Under the title 'Working with the People' (New York: A. Wessels Co.) an interesting account is given by Mr. Charles Sprague Smith of the work of the People's Institute. Mr. Smith appears to have been the originator of the enterprise, of which he is now managing director, but the late Abram S. Hewitt gave material aid, furnishing the free use of the large hall of the Cooper Union. "The Institute is to-day a free evening school for adults in Social Science, providing also instruction through lectures in other departments of knowledge; a forum for the discussion and voting upon questions of the day, with direct influence upon legislation; a People's Church, a fosterer of people's clubs, and, through alliance with another organization, a People's Hall of Music." Although the members of this club appear to be Jacobins to a man in their political principles, it is the policy of the management to have views distasteful to the audience of the lectures presented as well as those which are popular. Not many years ago "Lyceum lectures" were an established institution in New England, and the People's Institute seems to accomplish a similar purpose in a section of the city of New York.

Lewis F. Day's 'Stained Glass' (London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) is an excellent brief handbook published at the instance of the Board of Education and illustrated entirely from specimens in the Victoria and Albert Museum. The treatment of the subject is historical, based in the main on the divisions established by Winston in his 'Hints on Glass-Painting.' Thus, each of the accepted Gothic periods and the Renaissance receives in turn the author's undivided attention. All this sounds very much as if the treatment were of the dry-as-dust sort, but Mr. Day is too much of an artist to turn pedant. Technique never fails to interest him. The kind and quality of the pot-metal in use in the various countries, the way of using the leads, the kind and amount of painting, the use or abuse of enamel, the absolute and relative scale of the figures—all these and many more of the things that go to give character to the glass of any epoch, receive consideration such as only one thoroughly familiar with the operations of stained-glass making could give them. The book is smaller, less elaborate, and more strictly historical than the same author's 'Windows: A Book about Stained Glass.'

A Greek Grammar, by John Thompson, M.A. (E. P. Dutton & Co.), aims at introducing into the subject some knowledge of modern ideas in philology and modern views in syntax. It accomplishes this object in a volume of 494 closely packed pages, which will certainly make a useful handbook for reference in connection with the undergraduate work of colleges. For this purpose it offers a number of useful features: the systematic introduction to sound changes and to the conclusions of Delbrück and Brugmann, the hints as to regimen supplied with the list of verbs, the ample and minute examples in syntax treated from the later and more philosophic standpoint. These are very convenient and "up to date." One misses in a volume of this compass some introduction to rhythm and metre; and the important subject of word-formation is not dealt with at all. The book is entitled "a grammar for schools and colleges"; but in our preparatory schools it might be found rather unmanageable. Amid the necessary clamor of science and modern languages, it would hardly be possible for the pupils of secondary schools to absorb much philology in addition to the outlines of accidence and syntax. For these, as a matter of pedagogy, some ingenious minimum of the type of Goodell's 'School Grammar of Attic Greek' (Appleton) marks a limit of attainment which college instructors would be glad to secure as a foundation. This admirable specimen of scientific method, of judicious simplification and condensation, secures the utmost economy of time for the distracted teacher and pupil, yet it manages to devote a liberal chapter of twenty-six pages to word-formation, and to include a luminous little treatise on word-order. Although designed exclusively for beginners in Attic Greek, it might have spared a few pages for an introduction to iambic and anapæstic rhythms in the tragedians.

In the June number of the *Columbia Law Review*, Prof. James B. Scott contends that international law should be recognized as law, and not treated as merely the body of rules observed by governments as a moral code. Using as a test the enforcement of these rules by courts of justice, Professor Scott finds abundant authority for maintaining his proposition. He cites the declarations of many of the great English judges that the law of nations is part of the Common Law, and refers to the power given Congress by the Constitution to punish "offences against the law of nations."

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This law has been often recognized by our judges as having the same validity as our municipal law, and in Professor Scott's opinion it ought to be studied in the same way at our law schools. It is of as much importance as Constitutional law, and cases under it are likely to arise in practice with increasing frequency. We may add that to include this branch of law in the ordinary legal education would tend to accustom the public to the idea that governments should submit their disputes to courts, as their subjects do, instead of going to war about them. The next great advance in civilization should be in this direction.

The Western Reserve University has sent out the announcement of the courses in its new Library School, the purpose of which is stated to be "to give a thorough course in training for library work." The introductory statement says that "while, as is eminently proper in a school so established and endowed [*i. e.*, by Mr. Andrew Carnegie], special attention will be given to training for work in our rapidly growing system of public libraries, the interests of college, endowed, and other libraries will not be neglected." Further, "all candidates for admission are expected to bring a maturity and a preparation which will fit them for work equal to that in graduate schools." The graduate work will presumably come in the second year (the entire course covers two years). There is little indication that the first year's course will differ materially from the first year's course in any of the older schools. The new school has, however, one great advantage over the older ones, and that is in its faculty. While in the latter the faculties are almost exclusively taken from the staff of the particular library with which the instructors are connected, the Cleveland school has selected its instructors from half-a-dozen different libraries of varying character and grade. Furthermore, three of the instructors will devote all their time to the teaching. If any criticism might be offered at this stage, it would be to point out an apparent tendency to make a showing of a large number of subjects. Library "science" cannot very well be regarded as an organic entity by a faculty which enumerates its 28 subjects of instruction without any subordination, and puts in one line with Cataloguing, Classification, and Library Administration such topics as Book Numbers and Alphabeting, not to speak of Library Handwriting, of which the announcement even says that "no time will be set aside for definite practice." On the other hand, it is gratifying to see that so much space has been given to Library Administration, which important central subject has been sadly neglected in the older schools. The lectures on the History of the Printed Book will be particularly valuable in breaking the monotony of purely technical study, and in giving the students an outlook into a world with which no librarian should fail to make himself familiar.

Since the year 1899, the German Government has been publishing annually official reports of the strikes and lockouts in the Empire. The report for the year 1903 has just appeared. The number of strikes in that period was 1,374. In every respect labor troubles increased as compared with the previous two years. In 1902 there were 1,060 strikes; in 1901, 1,056; but in 1900 there were 1,433, and in 1899, 1,288. The number of concerns affected in 1903 was 7,000, as compared with 3,437 in 1902 and 4,561 in 1901. The number of strikers in the past year was 85,603; in 1902, it was 58,912; in 1901, 55,257. While the number of strikes increased by nearly one-third as compared with the preceding year, the number of strikers was more than fifty per cent. greater, and the number of concerns affected was more than doubled. The greatest number of strikes took place in the building trades, viz., 320 with 35,491 strikers, followed by the wood industries with 195 strikes and 6,168 participants, and metal workers with 150 strikes and 11,099 participants. As compared with the figures for 1901 and 1902, the number of successful as well as of unsuccessful strikes was greater, but the failures were comparatively more than the successes. There were only 70 lockouts reported for 1903, but the number has grown steadily from 23 in 1899. The number of workingmen affected was 35,293. In thirty-six cases the lockouts were entirely successful, in nineteen cases total failures; in other cases there was a compromise. The *Vorwärts*, the chief organ of the Social Democrats, is of the opinion that the lockouts will soon equal in number the strikes in Germany, and urges the unions to renewed agitation and consolidation.

The marked success of the Germans in manufactures and commerce, which they attribute in large measure to their industrial and commercial schools, has led our Government to publish on July 13 the first of a series of nineteen reports on industrial education in Germany. In this E. C. Meyer, deputy consul at Chemnitz, gives a bird's-eye view of the entire educational system of the Empire. Its foundation is the *Volksschule*, or common school, at which attendance is compulsory from the age of six or seven. The most important turning-point in the child's education is reached at his tenth year. The children of the poorest class continue in the common school till they are fourteen; but, though they are then permitted to work for their living, their instruction does not cease. For two or three years they are obliged to attend evening industrial, commercial, or one of the "countless lower trade schools, such as the schools for locksmiths, blacksmiths," etc. The children of the middle and higher classes at ten leave the common school for the *höhere Schule*, if they are going into business, or the *Hochschule* if a university education is the aim. In these the course is six to nine years, and the instruction is classical, or industrial, with general cultural studies. A powerful incentive to take this secondary education is that every youth who successfully completes a six-years' course is "honored with the privilege of one year's military service as a volunteer, instead of a service of two or, in certain cases, three years of regular service; and in addition shall have opened up to him an opportunity to become an officer in the German army." The non-classical or *Realschulen* are comparatively new, but in spite of bitter opposition from the adherents of the old methods they have, purely on their merit, "won their way to the front, aided also in no mean degree by the far-sighted and broad-minded commercial policy of the present Emperor, who has bestowed on them his unconcealed favor."

Rhodesia was brought into touch with the tourist world in the middle of June by the opening for general traffic of the Cape-to-Cairo Railway to the Victoria Falls on the Zambezi. Earl Grey, in making this statement at a meeting of the Chartered Company, gave other facts showing the progress of the country—"the Cinderella of South Africa"—notwithstanding the depression of the mining industry from the lack of a continuous supply of efficient labor. The most encouraging of these was the development of the agricultural resources of the land. The rural white population had increased more than 40 per cent. during the past two years, and the company had adopted Lord Cromer's system, which had proved so beneficial in Egypt, of making advances to the farmers. Four hundred and eighty-two miles of railway had been built within the year, making a total of 1,743.

—The Ecclesiastical Records of the State of New York, translated from the Dutch under the direction of Dr. E. T. Corwin, and published by the State, cover, in the third and fourth volumes last issued, the period between 1701 and 1750. Besides the Dutch documents herein put into good English, there are others arranged according to the rule of the respective governors, in chronological order, under the supervision of the State historian, Mr. Hugh Hastings. In this way pretty much everything relating to every denomination of Christianity in the colony of New York finds a place. Much light is thrown on the relations of the white men to the Indians and negro slaves. One gets a lively idea of the multifarious struggles and diverse energies under which the colonies were shaped. The Old World quarrels and contentions of Church and State could not be eliminated or quieted at once, and the pluck and determination of the New Yorkers, and especially the Dutchmen, to have no State Church seem wonderful. Evidently they thought the best way to resist the encroachments of the English Establishment was to hold tenaciously to their own ecclesiastical order, and this in not a few cases seemed to make them and their parsons unduly quarrelsome. Yet he must be a dull reader who cannot discern in the heavings of this heterogeneous mass of colonists the instinct for liberty safeguarded under law. We are not at all certain of the wisdom of the State historian in inserting so many reprints of matter already in English and accessible, or of making the general scheme conform so closely to the rule of the English governors, who were often little better than figureheads, and whose direct or indirect land speculations were the cause of trouble with the colonies and especially with the churches and ministers, who did not relish the fussiness and interference of the governors with their rights. The evident intent of both the colonists and of the British Government to do at least ordinary justice to the Indians is manifest, despite their frequent mistakes.

—The material in this publication for those who with patience would open its treasures for the illustration of social life in the colonies, though abundant, is much more available when used with such a work, for example, as Dr. Corwin's Manual of the Reformed Church in America. The generous aid given by the great Classis of Amsterdam to Dutch, French, British, German, and other immigrants making up our cosmopolitan commonwealth of New York

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is visible, but not glaring. There is not a little that concerns the settlement of the Mohawk Valley. The documents illustrating the disputes between the adherents of the Coetus or annual cis-Atlantic assembly and those opposed, or between the Progressives and Conservatives—those who held to more local independence of the mother church in Holland and those desiring closer conformity with the strict Calvinism and State-church rule beyond sea—are here given pretty fully. Without much meaning to the general and uncritical reader, these contests are luminous and fascinating to those who realize how much civilization and freedom in the Empire State owe to the men of the time in the Reformed Church, which, within a stout shell of conservative orthodoxy, has ever held the living germ of an intense love of freedom. No one pretending to write of the history of the Mohawk or Hudson River valleys, to say nothing of Long and Manhattan Islands, can ignore this series of volumes, which another brace will probably complete.

—It is doubtful if Holland has ever produced a more quaint and original writer than Multatuli. It remained, however, for the Germans to discover him. At home he made many enemies by his unsparing and vivid exposure of the tyrannical treatment by his countrymen of their subjects in India; and when, a few years ago, Wilhelm Spohr brought out a complete edition of his works in a German version, there were Hollanders who sneered at the Germans for their overrating of the author of 'Havelaar.' The tide has now turned, and books and articles on him are steadily increasing in number. The recently issued 'Multatuliana,' by Dr. A. S. Kok and Louis D. Petit, contains a complete list of all the works by and on this author, as well as some previously unpublished letters and articles. Particularly characteristic is an autobiographic sketch which he wrote in 1881 for Taco de Beer, who was writing the article on the literature of Holland for Spamer's Cyclopædia. A few sentences from it will serve as an excellent introduction for those not yet acquainted with this writer: "You ask for characteristic information regarding my life. 'Among the peculiarities of this author one of the most striking is that he has a cursed aversion to writing.' You see, my dear collector of Autoriana, there is one and a marked characteristic. For the rest, I was born on March 2, 1820. My parents were well-to-do and Godfearing, but very honest. Of these three parental qualities only the last passed over to me. Already in my eighth year I wrote verses which threw polite visitors into ecstasies. Not until the feeling of shame was born in me did I give up rhyming. It is incredible how many beautiful verses I have not written. . . . I am, of course, convinced that all Germany is eager to hear something about my development. But, my dear sir, I did not develop at all. Nor am I alone in holding this opinion. When literature is under discussion in Dutch periodicals, I am seldom mentioned—a fact which I greatly value. . . . That literary work is disagreeable to me follows from this, that I was forty years old when I was *compelled* to write 'Havelaar.' . . . But if Spamer issues a cyclopædia about persons who sacrificed themselves to their duties, and who, in consequence, were tortured to death by the idiotic multitude, then you may put my name in—even if it should be but a thin little book."

—We have received from M. Henri Gaidoz—eminent for his researches both in Celtic literature and in general folk-lore, and successively editor of the *Revue Celtique* and of *Mélusine*—an essay dealing with the influence of the Académie Celtique upon the study of folk-lore. The Celtic Academy, founded in 1804, was the parent organization from which sprang, in 1813, the Société des Antiquaires de France, and M. Gaidoz prepared his paper for the centenary of this society. He reviews briefly the circumstances of the foundation of the Academy at a time of great enthusiasm for the study of national antiquities, and speaks of its varied activities in history, archæology and linguistics. He takes due account of the prevalent Celtomania which impaired the value of much of its work, particularly in philology, and which (we may observe in passing) long survived the Academy. We recall an article published as lately as 1876, in the journal of a learned society in Brittany, in which the name of Mount Ararat was solemnly explained by the Breton phrase *ar-er-rha*, "on the summit"; and, outside the ranks of the learned, similar etymologies are still common enough among the other peoples of Celtic speech. In spite of false methods and erroneous theories, however, M. Gaidoz points out that the science of folk-lore owes a considerable debt to the Académie Celtique. It gave an important impulse to the work of collecting popular material, both in France and abroad, and the best of its published mémoires dealt with such subjects. To the influence of the Academy, or at least to the same national enthusiasm which animated its founders, M. Gaidoz attributes the great compilations of departmental statistics begun by the Government during the Consulate and continued under the Empire, which contained in some instances valuable reports on the manners and customs, beliefs, and traditions of the population. Looking beyond the boundaries of France, he makes an interesting suggestion with regard to Jacob Grimm, who became a corresponding member of the Academy in 1811. In that same year—suddenly and unaccountably, according to the editor of his correspondence—Grimm formed a plan for collecting popular literature, usages, and superstitions throughout the German lands; and four years later he issued a circular proposing the foundation of a society to foster such investigations. M. Gaidoz suggests that the idea first came to Grimm from his association with the Academy in Paris, and that his circular was based in large part on the "questionnaire" of Dulaure. The paper closes with some comparisons between the different aspects and motives of romanticism in France and in Germany, and from one point of view the whole of it may be regarded as a contribution to the history of the movement which goes by that name.

—Prof. Adolf Jülicher's 'Introduction to the New Testament,' translated by Janet Penrose Ward, with a prefatory note by Mrs. Humphry Ward, is published by Smith, Elder & Co., London, and in this country by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The translation is so good that the book reads as if written in a good English form, and the original must have been written with more literary skill than has been characteristic of German critics since Strauss's epoch-making book. The book is indeed remarkable for its fresh and simple presentation of its learned matter. Mrs. Ward's note indicates Jülicher's relative standing among the German critics. Much more liberal than Weiss, he is opposed *à outrance* to Zahn, the orthodox coryphæus, whom he calls the great *Irrgärtner*, a maker of bewildering labyrinths. As compared with Holtzmann (H. J.), he swings much freer from the Tübingen school, especially from the violence of F. C. Baur's *Tendenz* construction and his chronology of the New Testament writings. But the estimate of Baur in the "Prolegomena" is in admirable contrast with much vulgar contemporary depreciation. Great differences between Jülicher and Harnack do not, Mrs. Ward assures us, put them far apart. We do not find the differences great, measuring Harnack by his particular results and not by the rash expressions in which he indulged a few years since in a moment of rhetorical effusion. Professor Schmiedel of Zurich is conspicuously absent from Professor Jülicher's summary of the course and present state of New Testament criticism; but Professor van Manen of Leyden, who shares with Professor Schmiedel the blame visited on the destructive New Testament criticism of the 'Encyclopædia Biblica,' is dismissed as representing "a form of pseudo-criticism which considers itself called upon simply to upset all previous views of the development of the earliest Christian literature." More than a hundred pages are devoted to an excellent history of the New Testament canon, and sixty to a history of the New Testament text. It would be difficult to exaggerate the gulf that yawns between this 'Introduction' as a whole and the conservative view of the New Testament fifty years since, of which in popular preaching and teaching there are still many survivals.

—Enrique Piñeyro's 'El Romanticismo en España' (Paris: Garnier Frères) is distinguished by two excellences somewhat rare in Spanish criticism—a fine liberalism and a cosmopolitan view of literature. Both may be traced in part to the author's Cuban birth and American and Parisian residence; but his delicacy of critical touch, which has matured through a series of publications since the 'Estudios y Conferencias' of 1880, is quite his own. The present volume is modestly offered as a help to the study of Spanish romanticism for Spanish-Americans only; yet the author has much to say that must prove instructive to the Castilian as well as to the general reader. He considers the movement in a series of essays upon its principal exponents, Larra, Saavedra, Gutiérrez, Hartzenbusch, Espronceda, and Zorrilla, grouping lesser figures in supplementary chapters. But the stress of the work is critical rather than biographical, and it is pleasant to find preserved here in more permanent form several articles which we recognize as having appeared in the *Bulletin Hispanique*. The Spanish romantic school at best was a derivative growth, dependent upon France and (in less degree) England and Germany. It

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differed from its French counterpart in entailing no break with national achievements of the *siglo de oro*. For the Spain of Lope de Vega and Calderón was essentially romantic, and the classical literature of the eighteenth century in the Peninsula, a purely Bourbon imposition, was readily sloughed off under foreign romantic influence. In describing these influences Sr. Piñeyro is especially happy, and the names of Hugo, Mérimée, and Dumas, of Schiller and the Schlegels, are constantly recurring in his pages. In tracing the indebtedness of Spanish authors to English, he fills out many details that are lacking in the rough indications of Prof. J. D. M. Ford's article upon the subject in the Publications of the Modern Language Association of 1901 (vol. xvi., 3, pp. 453-459). To the English reader these points of contact constitute the most interesting feature of the book, for Macpherson, Scott, and Byron profoundly impressed most members of the group, and even a writer so pugnaciously national as José Zorrilla felt, though he would not confess, the influence of Southey. It is the despotism of Ferdinand VII. that may be thanked for having practically inaugurated the Spanish romantic movement by driving from Spain for a time those political liberals naturally prepared to appreciate and themselves fulfil Hugo's definition of romanticism as "liberalism in literature." In certain matters it is difficult to follow Sr. Piñeyro's lead, as, for example, in his extravagant commendation of the agreeable poetess of Cuban birth and education, Gertrúdis Gómez de Avellaneda, who is made to surpass Sappho and most other remarkable women of literature. Apropos of Zorrilla's 'Don Juan Tenorio,' we miss any notice of Arturo Farinelli's exhaustive study of the theme, 'Don Giovanni'; but in general the scholarship is adequate, and the absence of dogmatism is refreshing by contrast with that which mars the chief previous authority for the period, the 'Literatura española en el Siglo XIX.' of Padre García.

—When the soil was removed from the Athenian Acropolis just north of the Parthenon, in the autumn of 1885, foundations were uncovered which were recognized by Dr. Dörpfeld as those of the old temple of Athena, which had been embellished by Pisistratus in the sixth century B. C. A little later were brought to light several broken statues which evidently had been overthrown by the Persians on their invasion of Attica at the time of the battle of Salamis, and had received decent burial from the Greeks on their return. Fragments of still more ancient sculpture and architecture also were unearthed. Naturally the sculpture received first attention, and very early groups which once had stood in the pediments of a larger and a smaller and still earlier temple, were in a measure restored several years ago. For at least ten years the remains of early "poros" (calcareous tufa) architecture, and of the sculpture which was connected with this, have been studied by Dr. Th. Wiegand, and he has just published the results of this study —'Die archäische Poros-Architektur der Akropolis zu Athen' (Leipzig). He determines an original temple *in antis*, built about the time of Solon, early in the sixth century B. C., which was almost exactly 100 feet in length and thence received the name of Hecatompedon. In the front pediment of this temple stood a group of Heracles contending with the Triton, watched by the three-headed "Typhon huge, ending in snaky twine"; in the rear pediment was a group of three divinities, with serpents in the angles. Pisistratus or his sons took, as a nucleus, this temple with two columns on the front, and surrounded it with columns, making it, with some changes, the cella for their more magnificent peripteral temple which was burnt by the Persians 480 B. C. Architectural fragments of five other and smaller Doric buildings are identified in this book. Wiegand's studies have been continued so long that not a few of his results have become known to scholars in Greece, but this publication contains much that is new. The plates reproduce the polychrome decoration of both architecture and sculpture. The importance of the work is the greater because of the previous wide gaps in our knowledge of the early development of Doric architecture in Greece proper, as distinguished from that of Sicily and Lower Italy.

THE REFORMATION.

The Reformation. (The Cambridge Modern History. Vol. II.) The Macmillan Co. 1904.

This further instalment of the great modern history which is to be the monument of Lord Acton's amplitude of view and constructive power, sustains the high level attained by the first volumes, and is, perhaps, somewhat superior in plan and execution to Volume VII., which appeared out of its turn a few months ago. It covers what is *par excellence* the period of the beginning and of the first phase of the religious Reformation, from the death of Pope Alexander the Sixth (1503) and arrival of Luther at Wittenberg (1508) to the end of the Council of Trent (1563) and death of Calvin (1564). Events of determinative significance for the three centuries that followed were crowded into these sixty years —events not only of political complexity, but of the profoundest interest for the history of the Church and of religion. In the preceding period, which the first volume has dealt with under the title of the Renaissance, the centre of movement and change lies in Italy, with Germany filling the second place. In the present volume, Germany comes to the front and Italy begins to fall back into that position of dependence on the fortunes of Germany, France, and Spain in which she remained down till our own time. Pope Julius the Second may be said to be the leading figure of the earlier period, the Emperor Charles the Fifth of the later; and just as Pope Julius comes up in four or five of the chapters dedicated to the Renaissance, so Charles appears in five or six of the present volume.

The scheme is still the same. Prominent persons and great movements are taken as the subjects of the several chapters, and thus it happens that the chronological order cannot be followed, and that some repetition is involved, because where ecclesiastical affairs are complicated with politics, the same event has to be noticed twice, or perhaps more frequently; and the same thing occurs when the line of development in two different countries, coming into relations with one another, is separately followed in different chapters. The loss involved in such repetition is, however, much smaller than the gain which we find in the treatment of a special topic as a special topic. It is this which gives novelty and freshness to the book. The editors deserve the utmost credit for having so thoroughly grasped the spirit and meaning of Lord Acton's design. They have in this volume reduced the difficulty of following in the order of time the march of events by adding a chronological table, an addition which we asked for in noticing the first and the seventh volumes. This table is a valuable feature in the present one; it might perhaps have with advantage been made even fuller than it is. Another suggestion which was thrown out in these columns—viz., the placing in the top corner of the page the name of the writer of each particular chapter—has not been adopted. We still find ourselves embarrassed in passing from one chapter to another, and still more in turning back from one to compare the treatment of the same person or event in another, by not knowing in whose hands we are at each moment, for it need not be said that the attitude of the various writers is different, and it becomes important to know from what point of view the event or person is being considered.

In manner and style the writers of this volume worthily sustain the standard reached in Volume I. They are careful and accurate, and give us excellent bibliographies. They are business-like, and abstain from rhetorical flights; yet they write well, clearly and vigorously, some of them with notable power. Though we can discover their sympathies, and in treating of ecclesiastical questions it is impossible not to reveal sympathies, they are almost invariably fair and dispassionate in their handling of the great issues and the great personalities. Thus the late Professor Kraus's chapter on Medicean Rome is excellent in its sharply drawn yet guarded and discriminating portraits of Leo the Tenth, Adrian the Sixth, and Clement the Seventh. Though it does not dwell with equal fulness on the general intellectual tendencies at work within the Church, it is free from any ecclesiastical bias. Still more remarkable is Professor Lindsay's chapter on Luther, a really striking and impressive presentation of the personal character and earlier career of the man who is, more even than Charles V., the central figure of this period. It is truly scientific in its attitude, a remarkable contrast to what almost any Scottish Protestant would or could have written sixty years ago. Equally large and luminous is Dr. Fairbairn's chapter on Calvin, written with the force we expect from that distinguished scholar, but so much occupied with Calvin's attitude and work as to give us a less distinct impression than we desire of the man's personality. The chapter on Zwingli and the Swiss Reformation does not reach the level of the two last mentioned either in breadth and grasp or in style, but it is free from partisanship.

The mention of these three reformers suggests a reflection that bears upon the period covered by this volume. There is a sense in which the sixteenth century may

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be called the most complicated period of European history, and the period for which it is most difficult to compose a clear narrative of events. If the historian tries to follow the main stream of events and recount them in chronological order, he finds it hard to make them intelligible without constant digressions into the annals of each of the leading countries designed to explain what brought about the attitude of its rulers. If, on the other hand, he abandons the main stream, and deals with each of the great countries separately, he is driven to a tedious repetition, because many of the great conflicts and negotiations belong equally to German, to French, to Italian, to Spanish, and to English history. This unexampled complexity is due partly to the struggle over the Burgundian inheritance, the beginnings of which lie as far back as the death of Duke Charles the Bold, and to the rival claims in Italy of the house of Hapsburg and the house of Valois. But its chief source is to be found in the great religious movement which, appearing in different parts of Europe at almost the same time, though first and in its fullest strength in Germany, brought all the nations and kingdoms of Europe into a closer relation with one another than had been seen since the days of the Carolingians, when the nations and the kingdoms were but just beginning to exist. The Pope had been a spiritual monarch in all the countries; so a revolt which threatened his power drew all the countries into new bonds of alliance or of repulsion. Yet the ecclesiastical and theological struggle was constantly crossed and distorted, so to speak, by the dynastic hostilities of the great monarchs, so that there were constant changes of political attitude on the part of each; and even firm Catholics like Charles V., Philip II., and Francis I. found themselves sometimes driven into a more or less avowed support of heretics. Thus the problem which the present volume has placed before the editors is perhaps the hardest of all those they have had or will have to deal with in the whole of their enormous task.

That the problem has been completely solved one can hardly venture to affirm. Several of the chapters traverse the same subject, regarding it from different points of view, and are obliged to describe the same events over and over again. This is especially the case with regard to Germany, which occupies seven or eight of the nineteen chapters that compose this volume, though a considerable part of two of those chapters is devoted to the Italian policy of Charles V. England stands rather more apart, and is treated with a fulness which would be disproportionate were not the book intended primarily for the English-speaking world. Four chapters are allotted to it. Dr. James Gairdner writes of Henry VIII. He writes with a fairness and good sense which is particularly welcome to those who recall the outrageous vagaries and perversions of Froude, and the partisanship into which other writers, far superior to Froude, have been by their religious sympathies sometimes betrayed. The brief summing up which he gives of Henry's character and policy will commend itself to most unprejudiced minds, though it perhaps hardly sufficiently brings out the remarkable moral change which showed itself as the King grew older. He made for himself in his early years a reputation and a popularity on which he continued to live for some time after he had ceased to deserve it and had become one of the most repulsive ruffians of his age.

"The reign of Henry VIII. has left deeper marks on succeeding ages than any other reign in English history. Nothing is more extraordinary than that within less than a century after Fortescue had written in praise of the Constitution and laws of England, a despotism so complete should have been set up in that very country. But it was a despotism really built on the forms of the Constitution and due mainly to the remarkable ability of the unscrupulous King himself, who was careful to disturb nothing that did not really stand in his way. . . . Henry VIII. was really a man of consummate ability, who, if his course had not been misdirected by passion and selfishness, would have left a name behind him as the very founder of England's greatness. Not only was his judgment strong and clear, but he well knew how to select advisers. To talk of parliamentary control is out of the question. The King called Parliament only when he wanted money, or when he wished despotic measures passed with a semblance of popular sanction. But the forms of parliamentary legislation and control were kept up; and thus, with weaker kings and a more effective popular sentiment, the ancient assembly afterwards proved able to recover all and more than all its former authority. . . . No king was at first more devoted to the Church or more anxious to stand well in the opinion of his subjects. Nor could it be said that the Church's yoke was a painful one to mighty potentates like him. But wilfulness and obstinacy were very strong features in Henry's character. Whatever he did, he must never appear to retract; and he had so frequently threatened the Pope with the withdrawal of his allegiance in case he would not grant him his divorce, that at last he felt bound to make good what he had threatened. . . . He was anxious to show that the faith of Christendom was maintained as firmly within his kingdom as ever. He made Cranmer a sort of insular Pope, and insisted on respect being paid to his decrees—especially in reference to his own numerous marriages and divorces. But beyond the suspension of the canon law and the complete subjugation of the clergy to the civil power, he was not anxious to make vital changes in religion, and both doctrine and ritual remained in his day nearly unaltered" (pp. 462-4).

The Reformation under Edward VI. is treated of by Professor Pollard, who has also contributed four out of the chapters devoted to Germany; while the reign of Philip and Mary is allotted to Mr. Bass Mullinger, and the Anglican settlement under Elizabeth (together with the Scottish Reformation) to Professor Maitland. Scotch readers will complain of the lumping together of these two topics in one chapter; for the result is that the striking incidents that marked the religious revolution in North Britain, and which have obtained a dramatic interest for the world from their association with the romantic career of "vielgeplagte, vielbescholtene Helena," Mary Stuart, lose their connection and their dramatic interest by being crushed into the interstices, so to speak, of an outline of the history of England during the earlier half of Elizabeth's reign in England. If the Scotch story was worth telling, it ought to have been told as a story by itself, and the whole of it. The present volume leaves us in the middle. Mr. Maitland writes with his accustomed brilliancy. He has a gift for going to the point and for telling and vivid phrases. But his turn for epigram sometimes leads him perilously near obscurity, and clearness is, after all, next to accuracy, the first of historical merits. It has now become the fashion—a fashion palpable and even wearisome in Mr. Andrew Lang's History of Scotland—to sneer at John Knox, by way, perhaps, of restoring a balance after the undue glorification given him by his countrymen seventy or eighty years ago. Still, one is a little surprised to find it said that "Knox had no mind for martyrdom," merely because he quitted Scotland at a time when he would certainly have been put to death had he remained. The most courageous man—and few men were more courageous—may withdraw himself from imminent danger when he can do so with honor.

The Scandinavian kingdoms as well as Scotland come for the first time into the story of these volumes. They are, however, treated too briefly to permit the narrative to have the sort of interest that belongs to the German or Italian or French parts of the book. The inexorable limits of space exclude the necessary explanations of the economic and social conditions of these outlying lands. One great merit, however, the volume has which must be noted before we part from it. Like the first volume, it leaves, with all its complexity, a broad and tolerably definite impression. As in Volume I, one felt through all the chapters the movement of that new spirit which we call the spirit of the Renaissance, so in this volume we everywhere are met by the new forces that are at work in the sphere of religion, and feel how they interpenetrated politics, creating new affinities and new antagonisms. Moreover, we are led to realize in a way which perhaps no preceding history has brought out, the relation of the literary movement of the latter half of the fifteenth century to the religious movement of the earlier half of the sixteenth. This relation appears not only in the leaders of religious thought, but also in the body of educated or semi-educated men upon whom their influence first fell. The ground had been cleared, thought had been stimulated, minds had been prepared to discard old ideas and welcome new ones. And it is interesting to observe that this is the last period in European history in which the thinker and the scholar find themselves almost equally at home in other countries and in the country of their birth. The love of learning and religious sympathy form bonds which overleap differences of speech and of political allegiance, and make the lands that lie between the Vistula and the Atlantic one intellectual commonwealth almost as fully as were the lands between the Euphrates and the Atlantic in the first ages of Christianity. After 1600 not only has the unity of the Church vanished, but the various reformed churches have been divided by mutual jealousies. There is no more a *respublica Christiana*.

LEE'S HISTORY OF NORTH AMERICA.

The History of North America. Guy Carleton Lee, editor.—Vol. I. Discovery and Exploration. By Alfred Brittain, in conference with George Edward Reed. Pp. xxiv., 511.—Vol. II. The Indians of North America in Historic Times. By Cyrus Thomas, in conference with W. J. McGee. Pp. xx., 464.—Vol. III. The Colonization of the South. By Peter Joseph Hamilton. Pp. xxiii., 494.—Vol. IV. The Colonization of the Middle States and

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Maryland. By Frederick Robertson Jones. Pp. xxiv., 532. Philadelphia: George Barrie & Sons. 1904.

When a coöperative history of America in twenty volumes, laying special claim to completeness and "definitiveness," is heralded in advance of publication by advertising of the most elaborate sort; when its claim to favor, based in large part on alleged conformity to plans virtually endorsed by a great learned society, is publicly challenged, also in advance, by a scholar of repute; when the prospectus shows a formidable array of consulting and advisory committees of librarians, college presidents, editors, and military and naval celebrities; when the several volumes are introduced by the general editor with fulsome praise for the author and with wordy comment on the significance of the period; and when, to crown all, the publishers kindly furnish for editorial use four carefully prepared reviews, one of fifteen columns, a modest reviewer may well feel that the task of appraisal is not only difficult, but downright precarious. If, by any chance, impartial examination shows that the work, notwithstanding the preliminary puffing of it, is nevertheless in the main a meritorious performance, the judgment is likely to be taken as in some measure a justification of the advertising methods of publishers and editor; while if the reviewer, having in mind the peace of his own soul or the intellectual welfare of the community, finds in the volumes matter for condemnation, it will of course be proof positive that he has not read the book, but only the prospectus, and is probably himself on the staff of some forthcoming rival series.

The four volumes noted above are the first instalment of the "definitive" History of North America which Dr. Lee has undertaken to edit. A volume on "Prehistoric North America," which one would expect to find near the beginning of the series, is postponed in order that the author may avail himself of "certain research work now in progress"—a phrase whose real meaning only the initiated will comprehend. The History is to be illustrated by one hundred and twenty photogravure plates and more than a thousand other pictures, most of them, we are told, from photographs made expressly for the occasion. So far as the volumes before us go, the illustrations are well chosen and commendably executed, though their distribution seems to be without particular regard to the immediate text. The volumes are of substantial octavo size, attractively printed on good paper. The work is dedicated to the American Historical Association. Inasmuch as the Council of the Association, after having endorsed the plan of a coöperative history and submitted it to the Association, later found reasons for adjudging the preparation of such a work under the auspices of the Association inexpedient, Dr. Lee's dedication is not devoid of grim humor.

Recent years have so familiarized us with the coöperative history that nothing special need be said here regarding the merits or limitations of the plan. In the field of American history the only notable example of the method thus far carried out on a large scale is the great 'Narrative and Critical History' of Justin Winsor. Winsor's work, however, is valuable chiefly for its wealth of bibliographical learning, while its disproportionate attention to cartography and the colonial period makes it in no sense a well-balanced book. In American history, however, where the quantity of material is very large in proportion to its chronological limits, and where the dependence of the history of one section upon that of another is not always close, the coöperative method has obvious advantages; and there has certainly long been need of a comprehensive work which should sum up, with a scholar's accuracy and discrimination, the results of recent investigation. Dr. Lee has aimed to supply this lack in a series which shall avoid the particular pitfalls that endanger cooperative narration, namely, arbitrary arrangement, repetition, overlapping, and obtrusive inequalities of treatment and style. At the same time, he has worked for the general public rather than for scholars, for the uncritical rather than the critical reader. The criterion, accordingly, is inevitable: admitting that the work was worth doing, has it been so done as to give, in popular shape and tone, an accurate, duly proportioned, and impressive view of American history?

The publishers, with a wealth of iteration, assure us that it has, and the editor in his preface continues the refrain. We would gladly believe, without further inquiry, that such is the fact; for if there is anything which the historical student desires and the public ought to have, it is a "definitive" history. Unfortunately, Dr. Lee has made a critical estimate of the work of his contributors extremely laborious by the practically complete exclusion of references to authorities. A "definitive" history of North America would, we imagine, contain not only much that is new, but also much that has not hitherto been coördinated with the mass of previously accepted data; but to offer the public such a history without telling where the new material comes from, or why it is used as it is, is to run the risk of producing a work which scholars will not think it worth while to spend time over. We do not say that the matter in the four volumes before us is not all true. All we affirm is that, the customary means of testing it being lacking, the work cannot be quoted as authoritative. We cannot but think it unfair, too, to the writers of the volumes to deny them the privilege of vouching in the usual way for the truth of their statements and the thoroughness of their research.

Turning now to the individual volumes: Mr. Brittain's volume on "Discovery and Exploration" deals with the exploration of the coast and the interior by the Spanish, French, Dutch, and English, down to the beginning of the seventeenth century, the survey ending with the first permanent settlement of Virginia. The author, in the language of Dr. Lee's preface, has "woven his narrative from the very words of the discoverers and explorers and their contemporaries." In fact, the book consists for the most part of extracts, often lengthy, from contemporary sources, strung together so as to make a continuous narrative. The apportionment of space seems to have been determined somewhat by the availability of the material. Thus, the first chapter is a sketchy review of classical and mediæval geographical ideas, with principal reference to Vinland and the Northmen; the Sagas being quoted from at length. Then follow a chapter on the life of Columbus before 1492, three chapters on Columbus's first voyage—chiefly the journal—and one chapter on the remaining voyages. The same method obtains throughout. The text contains only occasional and incidental references to authorities, and the translations of the documents are uncredited. The many questions of critical scholarship which recent study of this early period has raised are little referred to, nor is the connection between the exploration of the New World and the general growth of geographical knowledge well brought out. As a whole, Mr. Brittain's volume—so much of it, that is, as is not simply source material—is creditably written; the unusual method is skilfully applied; but the book makes, obviously, no *new contribution of importance to the period* of which it treats, nor gives, on the whole, an especially good view of it.

Dr. Thomas's volume on the Indians, on the other hand, shows evidence throughout of sound learning and good judgment, and undeniably fills a distinct void in our historical literature. For the first time, in a scholarly way, the Indian history of North America is brought together in narrative form, and dealt with, not as a mere addendum to the history of the European conquest, but as an historical factor of independent importance and vital significance. The general method is that of taking the Indians by tribes, groups, and race stocks, tracing the internal history as far as known, and following the course of contact with the whites. The narrative, as a whole, is brought down to the present time. We recall no author who appears to have used so thoroughly the mass of recent scientific data concerning the Indian, or who has appraised with such discretion and wisdom the Indian character. Examples of the latter quality are numerous, as good a one as any occurring on pages 127, 128, where Penn's Indian policy is discussed. The last two chapters treat of the Indian policy of the United States, and of the Indians as a race and as a factor in American history. Dr. Thomas is careful to distinguish between the policy of the Government and its enforcement, finding in the former much to commend. Despite the prohibition of footnotes, the author contrives to introduce into the body of his narrative numerous references to or criticisms of authorities, with happy results for the scholarly impression of his work, though here, as elsewhere, the principal sources of the material are not indicated. The pictures of Indians are exceptionally good, but it is a pity that the very useful ethnographic maps were not drawn on a larger scale.

Dr. Thomas revives much of the history of the Indian; Mr. Hamilton restores to us the history of the French and Spanish colonies in the South. His account of the English settlements is good, though in no respect novel or distinguished save, perhaps, for the skill with which a considerable mass of detail is handled and the careful summaries of legal and governmental institutions and of social life in the colonies. The account of Virginia shows constant indebtedness to Alexander Brown, to whose devoted labors Mr. Hamilton pays deserved tribute in his preface; and the sketch of Carolina has profited by the work of McCrady. With the history of the Gulf col-

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onies, however, Mr. Hamilton is on his own ground, and he has succeeded, better, we think, than any one else, in restoring to its proper place in the story of American origins the history of the settlements at New Orleans, Mobile, Pensacola, and in Florida. The account of British Florida, based on the Haldimand papers and other manuscript sources, is offered as "almost original." Further, the connection between European events and the movements in America, especially in the eighteenth century, is adequately emphasized. Mr. Hamilton's style, though lacking in dignity, is lively and readable, and he has succeeded in bringing out something of the romantic charm of the early South which Dr. Lee, in a remarkable preface, dwells upon as the antithesis of New England "realism."

A somewhat similar service has been performed by Dr. Jones for the history of the Middle colonies. Dr. Lee's introduction dwells on the lack of interest on the part of the people of the Middle States in their own history, and on the fact that the Middle States have never advertised themselves as have New England and the South. Whether or not the dictum has anything more than a piquant suggestiveness to commend it, it is certain that the annals of the Middle group of English colonies have commonly been looked upon as relatively uninteresting. Dr. Jones has sought to show that the Middle colonies "possessed important characteristics and interests in common," and therefore "present a territorial and political unity that admits of a special and independent study." If he has not wholly succeeded in his aim, he has at least written a valuable and readable book. His five chapters on the first half of the eighteenth century will do much to rehabilitate, for the average reader, this neglected period. The seventeenth century offers less field for originality, but there is a good account of New Sweden and of the important relations between the Dutch and the English. Chapter viii., on the "Migration of the Oppressed," is an instructive account of the immigrating sects and communities that found asylum in America. On the other hand, there is not much in the book about social matters, and only moderate notice of economic conditions. We hope, too, that the two chapters on the eventful years 1754-65, with which the volume closes, are not all that Dr. Lee's History plans to devote to Revolutionary beginnings.

Bearing in mind its popular purpose, and with the reservations already noted, we are glad to commend the first instalment of this ambitious history. Of the four volumes thus far put forth, Mr. Brittain's is the least satisfactory and Dr. Thomas's the most important scientific contribution; while the two others, though not as a whole notable for originality or breadth, are straightforward, useful narratives. If the style nowhere attains distinction, it is at least nowhere dull. We do not think that the popularity of a work which places special emphasis on "definitiveness" would have been lessened by judicious footnotes or bibliographies. The only really objectionable parts of the volumes are the editor's prefaces. If these could be shorn of their glib generalizations and complimentary ascriptions, the interests of literature as well as of history would be conserved.

MALLOCK'S VEIL OF THE TEMPLE.

The Veil of the Temple; or, From Dark to Twilight. By W. H. Mallock. London: John Murray: New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

In order to discuss the antagonism between Science and Religion and to effect a reconciliation, or at least a compromise, Mr. Mallock assembles a small but select company at a country house, situated indefinitely on the Irish coast; a house remote from the stress of modern civilization, yet an example of all which that can do for making life perfect, materially speaking. The device has probably been adopted to lighten the solemn spectacle of physical science annihilating God, Freedom, and Immortality; and certainly it has deprived the operation of a certain not undesirable dignity and impressiveness. It also adds to the cares of the trained librarian, who will hesitate to place the volume among Mr. Mallock's works of fiction for fear of disappointing the frivolous, or among his direct contributions to religious and social controversy for fear of enraging the earnest thinker.

The people who sit metaphorically before "The Veil of the Temple" in Mr. Rupert Glanville's ancestral abbey or drawing-room or moonlit garden are not exactly asking what it profits a man to gain the whole world and lose his own soul. The world and its pomp, power, and corruption are already theirs, and they show no inclination to part with a penny or a vice in exchange for a soul, only a polite willingness to accept an arrangement whereby the comfortable assurance of a soul may be added to their other possessions. Mr. Glanville has long been preoccupied with his own sensations, much wrought upon by failure to harmonize his rational beliefs and religious sentiment, and at last driven to call his friends about him and thrash it all out with them. He summons Mr. Seaton, a speculative, philosophical Scot; and Mr. Hancock, a sensible, self-made, tuft-hunting Englishman; and several aristocratic friends whose condescension in having minds and wishing to have souls is nicely appreciated by Mr. Mallock. He permits them intermittently to assert their proper position by talking scandal and by displaying that cold sensuality which he so frequently assumes to be the high prerogative and happy practice of the great. Their attitude towards the entertainment provided for them is prettily indicated in a remark made by Mrs. Vernon: "I was once told by a friend of mine to read Dr. Sanday's writings, as he put the case for belief in an absolutely convincing way. I couldn't do so at the time, because I had to go to Ascot." But, for so flippant a lady, she holds up her end in admirable language.

After some preliminary expression of views by the amateur theologians, professional aid is sought from Ballyfergus, described by Glanville as a "grand resort of the clergy, where a clerical hotel has been started with a low tariff, a chapel, and a room for religious conferences." No invitations are declined, and the coterie gets its fill of sermons while the professionals get their fill of victuals and drink, of a quality not dreamed of in the low-tariff hotel. The State Church takes precedence. There are three representatives—an old-fashioned parson, an advanced canon, and a high-church priest. Then follow Mr. Brompton, a light of the ethical church, and Mr. Brock, presumably a suitably plebeian substitute for the name Herbert Spencer. Mr. Seaton speaks for rationalistic and idealistic philosophy. The mind of the Church and its attitude towards modern criticism are expounded pretty fairly, with only slightly malicious exaggeration, but Father Skipton is a rather gross caricature. To the credit of the inquiring listeners be it said that, during his performance, they silently crept out of the chapel, leaving him and a female devotee sprawling and shrieking amidst his embroideries and candles.

Mr. Brompton accepts the definition of religion already reached—"a desire, accompanied by a belief in the possibility of its actual satisfaction, for some larger kindred life into which by moral conduct the individual life may expand itself," but his offer of Humanity as that larger life, Comte's "Great Being," exposes him to derision.

Brock stands manfully for the evolution of the universe and its contents from cosmic stuff of unknown parentage, and Seaton, with marvellous lucidity for a philosopher, proclaims that reason, freedom, and moral sense are matters of direct apprehension, and disposes of physical science and the material universe by declaring that the only realities are God, or the Supreme Mind, and the human mind, and that religion is ecstasy produced in the lesser by contemplation and adoration of the greater.

The verdict on all this is that the dogma of Christianity has been irretrievably destroyed by the higher criticism and scientific demonstration; that Natural Theism collapses before the profound truths of Evolution; that Humanity is a ridiculous God; and that regular development from a single principle, an unknowable, is unthinkable. Nevertheless, the existence of religious impulse is admitted, and Mr. Glanville is called on to review and criticise the desolating conclusions, and to indicate, if possible, some means whereby this impulse may connect itself as it once could intellectually with "any scheme of existence which the intellect will permit it to accept." He performs the duty thoroughly and brilliantly, arguing, for the validity of the mystical faculty, that science has not proved the reality of things outside the individual mind, and, by its conception of the cause or substance out of which we have all risen, compels us to accept what are for the intellect contradictions. Therefore, he continues:

> "If we find any good reason for assenting to the doctrines of religion, though these are absolutely contradicted by the detailed demonstrations of science, we do no more violence to our intellect by simultaneously accepting both than we do by accepting the demonstrations of science itself, which have their root in contradiction equally or even more unmanageable."

He suggests a meeting-ground for religious feeling and intellect in theories similar to those advanced by the Pragmatists—arguments most persuasively set forth in a series of essays by Mr. William James. These theories, though very attractive, are to some minds far from convincing; and if Mr. Glanville's audience had not by this time been in a state of exhaustion, it would not have been so easily satisfied that the validity of a belief is intellectually proved by its general presence in some form and its usefulness for living worthily and

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happily. He hastened to clinch his argument by allowing great license as to the character of religious aspiration and its object, offering a wide choice of "a Something which is beyond ourselves and which yet responds to us with a promise of future union." From the Somethings offered, Lord Restormel promptly chooses the Eternal Feminine, and Mr. Mallock seems thus to laugh profanely not only at his subject, but at the fools who take an interest in it.

Through the whole discussion runs the error of ascribing to the knowledge accumulated by scientific labor too much power to destroy the legitimacy of religious belief. Each separate science, attending to its own business, has given accounts of facts ascertained within its own boundaries, and the attempts by piecing these facts together to account for the whole of life establish nothing, and rest at Mr. Hancock's refuge, a working hypothesis. Only a few enthusiasts ever believed that science had put God and immortality out of court, or that it "has stripped us of everything that gives worth to us in our own eyes."

"Science," says a very modern philosopher, "consists in the full and coherent description of facts of experience; experience being the most general term to describe the character of all that goes on in the universe." So far, no such account has been given. When it is given, the work of science will be done. Philosophers as well as scientists and speculative novelists will be forced to retire from business. We shall really be as gods, knowing everything; and though the state of certainty cannot be so interesting as our present one, let us hope that it may be blissful.

Francis Parkman. By Henry Dwight Sedgwick. (American Men of Letters.) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1904.

The series to which this volume is now added would manifestly be incomplete without a biography of Parkman; but if Mr. Sedgwick's book did not do something more than satisfy this formal exigency, it would be below the level of the writer's reputation and the public need. If it does not fail in both of these particulars, it is in neither of them quite satisfactory. Mr. Sedgwick seems to have been hampered by his consciousness of the excellence of Mr. Farnham's biography as an analysis of Parkman's work in relation to his personality, and to have said, like Michelangelo of Brunelleschi's dome, "Better than thee I cannot, but like thee I will not." By this refusal he has debarred himself from the most characteristic action of his critical faculty, while at the same time he has failed to utilize Mr. Farnham's neglected opportunity and give us a criticism at once large and particular of Parkman's histories. Mr. Sedgwick's book is equally with, if not more than, Mr. Farnham's a representation of Parkman's personality. The nearest approach we have yet had to any generalized view of Parkman's work is Mr. John Fiske's introduction to the later edition of Parkman's Works.

One fruit of Mr. Sedgwick's determination to make a different book from Mr. Farnham's is a much fuller use of Parkman's letters and journals than his predecessor's, and a much more expansive treatment of his early life. In a whole of 326 pages, 216 are devoted to the years preceding the publication of the 'Conspiracy of Pontiac,' the first of his historical books, though dealing with an afterclap of the events narrated in the subsequent volumes. Of these 216 pages much the larger part is in Parkman's own words, the pages of his 'Oregon Trail' being freely drawn upon for the story of his foolhardy Western adventures. Whatever potentiality of mishap was hidden in Parkman's physical inheritance, it is evident that to his overdoing in the new Harvard gymnasium and to his ambitious overstrain upon the Western plains was due most of his suffering and disability. Our best account of these is Parkman's letter to George E. Ellis, published in Farnham's Life. Mr. Sedgwick publishes in an appendix a very similar letter to Martin Brimmer. Parkman had imitated so faithfully the Spartan boy hiding the savage fox under his cloak, that the story of his hindrances and suffering, when published, was a startling revelation, even to his friends, except those of the most intimate circle. The continuity of his purpose and performance would be remarkable had these been associated with vigorous health. One of the greatest disappointments of his life was that he could not be a soldier in our civil war. It is certain that he would have been one of the most striking figures on that memorable scene; one of the most efficient, as well as courageous, of our generals; also, one of the least compassionate. It has been significantly remarked that he never has a word of reprobation for the cruelty of war. For this, as for the tortures he describes so placidly in 'Pontiac,' he had an almost Chinese indifference. His early eagerness for action was intensified as he grew older by the prohibitions of his lameness, blindness, and other disabilities. But, had he fought through the war from Sumter to Appomattox, he could not have exhibited a more inflexible courage than that with which he met the shock of physical anguish, steadily renewed from day to day.

An interesting feature is the amount of knowledge that he brought to his first travels in the region which was to be the principal scene of his histories. An instinct for knowing what he wanted was highly characteristic of his unwearying hunt on the long trail which, on setting out, he thought would hold him twenty years. In the event it held him more than twice that length. But corresponding to this extension there was a marked extension of his plan. This was at first to write a history of the 'Old French War.'

"It was not till some years later that I enlarged the plan to include the whole course of the American conflict between France and England, or, in other words, the history of the American forest; for this was the light in which I regarded it."

Mr. Sedgwick hesitates at the praise which ranks Parkman with Gibbon, but in this enlargement of his plan there was an agreeable resemblance to Gibbon's enlargement of his from the decline of Rome, the city, as he first apprehended it, to the decline and fall of the Empire. When we consider that Parkman reckoned his loss of time through sickness as three-quarters of it all, it would seem that he considerably overestimated the time necessary for the accomplishment of his task—that ten good years would have been enough for this. But hardly would the work, done so swiftly, have been what it now is. The brooding habit of the intolerably inactive years brought many living things to birth.

Mr. Sedgwick's inclination is to regard Parkman's early journals as rhetorical exercises, whereas Mr. Farnham thinks they were the practice of his 'prentice hand in exact description of things, persons, and events. Neither opinion gets much support from the first instalment of the history, which, rhetorically, was far more florid than the journals and far less realistic. Theodore Parker found its descriptions of the forest, which Parkman loved so exceedingly, too much generalized. "You do not tell us what kind of trees, etc., these were; only trees." In one respect the man's gain on the boy was immense. The temper of the early journals is habitually of the *nil admirari* sort. He "would not give a damn for all the churches and ruins in Rome," and he has a way of persecuting animate persons and inanimate things, and worrying them with epithets, which is entirely foreign to the temper of his books.

Nowhere else does Mr. Sedgwick warm to his work so eagerly as in his chapter descriptive of Parkman in his flower garden, cultivating his roses and lilies with assiduous care. A quite breathless tale is that of his marriage of the Lily Beautiful and the Lily Golden, from which came the *Lilium Parkmanni*, the most signal of Parkman's floral victories. There is not a line too much of this; but a more important matter—Parkman's social and political opinions—is neglected to a degree, in painful contrast with the brilliancy of the flower-garden episode. Here again Mr. Sedgwick seems to have been deterred by the good things that Mr. Farnham had said before him. But Parkman's relation to the anti-slavery conflict is indicated forcibly, if not powerfully, in a letter of November 10, 1850:

"Just now we are on the eve of an election—a great row about the Fugitive Slave Law, and an infinity of nonsense talked and acted on the subject. A great Union party is forming in opposition to the abolitionists and Southern fanatics. For my part, I would see every slave knocked on the head before I would see the Union go to pieces, and would include in the sacrifice as many abolitionists as could be conveniently brought together."

For this Mr. Sedgwick pleads "a certain extravagance, half in jest, half in relief of his humors," but it is significant of Parkman's attitude towards the entire body of humanitarian reform. A little grain of it in any person or movement was enough to make him sour. He was aristocratic in his politics, as in his tastes; with as little faith in the people as his admired Hamilton. Universal suffrage was intolerable to him; women's suffrage more so, if possible, and all efforts for international peace or social amelioration. Yet there was the spirit of a reformer in him also. The condition of the civil service evoked it, the abuses of municipal politics, the corruption of the legislature and executive. In its total manifestation his character was less simple than dual, and no pages of Mr. Sedgwick's book are more instructive and appropriate than those of his "More Intimate Chapter," in which the man's obverse of hard and gritty stoicism is qualified by a reverse of playfulness and kindness, with appreciation of such genuine sympathy as required few words for its expression. Perhaps both Mr. Farnham and Mr. Sedgwick

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are well advised in attaching themselves preëminently to the man's character and experience rather than to his work. Of this sufficient has not yet been said, but it speaks well for itself.

North America. By Israel C. Russell. (Appletons' World Series: The Regions of the World. Edited by H. J. Mackinder of Oxford.) 1904. Pp. 435, 8 colored maps, and 39 other illustrations.

Professor Russell states that his aim has been to "give a condensed and readable account of the leading facts concerning the North American continent which, from the point of view of the geographer, seem most interesting and instructive." Unfortunately, limitation of space has required the exclusion of several chapters that had been prepared on political and economic geography—only a short discussion of boundaries being preserved—so that the book as published is for the most part concerned with physical geography (land forms, coastal features, and climate) and with the distribution of native plants and animals; but to this are added chapters on the geology and the aborigines of the continent. Nevertheless, the volume certainly realizes the author's aim. There is an abundance of entertaining matter in which the results of modern studies are well set forth.

Thus, in the chapters on coast and land forms we learn of the unusual steepness of the submarine mountain flanks whose summits rise in the islands of the Antilles, and of the absence of features due to erosion such as characterize continental ranges, as if the submerged ranges had been originally folded up under the sea; of the drowned river valleys by which our mid-Atlantic coast is so plentifully embayed, and of the off-shore wave-built reefs, by which the embayments are so largely enclosed from the outer ocean; of the Appalachian ridges that stand as monuments of the difference of altitude between the surfaces of the two peneplains to which the range has been so g ally reduced. The chapter on climate tells of the West Indian hurricane with its calm central "eye," of the drying chinook wind on the Western plains, as well as of the special features of various climatic provinces. The chapter on plants and animals gives a careful account of the flora and fauna of the continent, where one may learn of the palm, the mahogany, the cacao tree, and their many fellows; of the buffalo, the moose, the beaver, and their neighbors, not forgetting the unsavory skunk. Indeed, the information on all topics is so carefully selected and so well presented that the book must immediately take a valued place in all libraries of reference.

There are certain points, however, in which the descriptions are not all that could be wished. The Appalachian Mountains are described as "long, narrow ridges," although this simple statement has no proper application to the bulky domes of North Carolina; and the mountains of New England and the eastern Canadian provinces are unsatisfactorily set outside of the Appalachians. The ranges of the Great Basin are said to have a steeper slope, which represents the upraised side of a faulted block of earth-crust, and no sufficient indication is given of the extensive erosion that the block face has suffered. The explanation of the chinook wind is deficient in failing to bring clearly forth the physical processes that determine its peculiar warmth and dryness. The extraordinary diversity of language stocks among the Californian aborigines is accepted as involving "a very long period of time" for its evolution, although the principle on which this deduction is based is here strained towards, if not to, its breaking limit.

It is with regret that we feel impelled to add that the chapters on geology, plants, animals, and aborigines are not treated from a sufficiently geographical point of view. They contain much information, as has already been pointed out, but the information as presented might be transplanted to books on geology, botany, zoölogy, and ethnology, and be even more at home there than it is in this professedly geographical handbook. For, as Hettner has lately expressed it, things of these various kinds are not of geographical essence in themselves, and they become geographical only through a certain kind of consideration—namely, a consideration which presents them as environing or environed elements, and not as isolated, independent elements of the region to which they belong. The accounts of bear and deer, the descriptions of changes in continental outline during the Cretaceous period, and other examples of the same kind, are presented in a way that is appropriate enough to zoölogy and geology, but that lacks too often the essential quality of geographical discipline. The proffered opportunity of teaching the most characteristic quality of modern scientific geography has been to too large an extent neglected.

Certain pages are open to criticism in another respect: there is sometimes a descent to elementary statements that are out of place in a book of so generally a mature style as this. For example, the change of seasons and the variations of day and night are explained as the result of the inclination of the earth's axis to the plane of its orbit (wrongly stated as 23° 27′); and space is thus lost that might be given to better things. The origin of off-shore sand reefs ought to be learned elsewhere by readers of such a book as this, if it be unknown to them; and the fifteen lines given to this elementary problem could then be devoted to the cusps of the Carolina coast, which are well figured, but not explained. It must, however, be admitted that there is some provocation to this irregular combination of elementary and advanced material in the curiously ragged state of public education on geographical matters; but it is an open question whether deference to this ragged state is a good means of correcting it.

The small number of illustrations and diagrams is an unsatisfactory feature of the series to which this volume belongs.

Success among Nations. By Emil Reich. Harper & Brothers. 1904.

We fear that a nation desiring to learn how to be successful would be disappointed in this book. It may furnish schoolboys with some of the sounding and meaningless sentences wherewith they love to besprinkle their graduating orations, but it is hard to conceive of what use it can be to any other class. It purports to "initiate the reader into the psychological view of history, by giving, in outline and by means of a few illustrations, a bird's-eye view of the human forces that have raised some nations to the glory of success, while their absence has prevented other nations from holding their own in the battle for historic existence." But the method of obtaining this psychological view is, unfortunately, not generally available. "There is little danger of exaggeration," Mr. Reich tells us, "in stating that most opinions held by one modern nation on the others are wrong." But "nothing short of lengthy struggles for existence in a modern country will give one the opportunities by the close analysis of which one may arrive at the real soul of a foreign nation."

The most obvious inference from this is that it is vain to hope to "arrive at the real soul" of an ancient nation. Struggle as one may, one cannot struggle for existence among the Hittites or the Carthaginians. Nor can it be admitted that struggling for existence in a modern country qualifies one to understand the forces that have affected its progress. Such struggles are too engrossing to allow leisure for historical investigation, and Mr. Reich is careful to tell us that it is "a very rare exception" for an Englishman to know much about England or an American about America. No doubt the intelligent foreigner notices peculiarities to which the natives of a country may be blind; but he is apt to generalize from insufficient observation, and to exaggerate the importance of what strikes him as novel.

Many of the propositions here advanced are undeniable. The ancient Peruvians and Mexicans and Egyptians and Babylonians are certainly not regarded as intellectually successful; but the fact that the soil of their countries was rich is hardly sufficient to explain this phenomenon. China, we have been told before, is unprogressive; but the alluvial plains of the Hoang-Ho do not exhaustively account for this intellectual stagnation. We are assured that poverty is not conducive to man's real progress, and that a certain degree of comfort is essential to the development of a higher civilization. We do not dispute these statements, but as generalities of this kind are tolerably familiar, it hardly seems worth while to make a book of them. Those who enjoy them can take down their Buckle and find all that they require.

Not all of Mr. Reich's propositions are of this safely conventional description. He asserts that the French colonial empire would prove an immense source of capital in the event of European war. "Europe, as a whole, has been completely successful." "The statistical returns of moneys devolving by inheritance show a total for France nearly thirty times as great as those for England, Austria, or Germany." The "success" of Europe seems to be attributed chiefly to the wars that have desolated that continent. "Each square foot of European soil has cost thousands, not to say hundreds of thousands, of European lives." As there are 27,878,400 square feet in the mile, and as the area of Europe is some 3,700,000 square miles, if we allow but 2,000 lives to the foot, we reach the appalling total of over 200,000,000,000,000,000 lives as the cost of the European territory. In the light of these figures we find it impossible to concur in the assertion that, "should

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the agitators for international disarmament and the abolition of compulsory military service meet with success, it will be an evil day for the Continental countries."

Major André's Journal. 1777-78. Boston: The Bibliophile Society.

In two beautiful volumes, illustrated by many finely executed maps, the Boston Bibliophile Society issues what purports to be a journal kept by "Captain" John André from June, 1777, to November, 1777, with a break in the record from January to June, 1778. The maps and plans, forty-four in number, stated to have been drawn by André, are very beautiful drawings, some being colored and very elaborate in detail and finish. Senator Lodge supplies an introduction. The journal adds little to our information as to the movements of the British army, but any record from André's pen would possess a certain interest. It may be said at once that the maps are of the highest value, and are finer examples than any series of military maps of the Revolution known in any collection outside of the War Office. The reproductions are all that can be desired, and it is only to be regretted that the edition is so small, as they should be available for every student of the military history of the Revolution. They should have been issued in atlas form.

The history of this journal, so far as known, is briefly told in the letter of the agents who sold the manuscript to an American collector. "The journal was recently discovered by Earl Grey, on his opening at his house a box that had not seen daylight for at least 100 years. . . . Major-General Grey and André were exceptionally intimate friends, and hence the preservation of this MS. amongst Earl Grey's papers. It was probably brought home by Grey to show what he had done." André's name or signature nowhere appears in the journal, and the writing was identified by a photograph of a letter vaguely described as being "in America." This letter is the well-known request for a soldier's death, written to Washington after sentence to be hanged.

It is strange that more attention was not given to identifying so important a manuscript, and the journal and its contents raise some difficulties. The army lists show that Captain André became an aide to Major-General Charles Grey in 1777 or 1778. In September, 1779, he served as aide to Sir Henry Clinton, but did not receive his major's commission until August, 1780. Grey was made colonel of the Twenty-eighth Regiment in March, 1777, and André was a captain in the Twenty-sixth Regiment. So far as dates and rank are involved, the journal may have been written by André. But how can the statement of the agent regarding the exceptional intimacy existing between the two men be reconciled with the fact that not a scrap of André's writing could be found in Earl Grey's collections, not so much as would serve as an example for testing the writing of the journal? Further, if Gen. Grey was solicitous about his service, and almost every one connected with the campaigns of 1777 and 1778 had reason to expect investigation, would he not have saved some other records than a journal by his aide? And would not a complete record of the year be a better defence than one that said nothing of some six months of the period? The record was probably a personal journal of the writer, one who was at headquarters and therefore in a position to know what was being done. It was not an "official" document. This is not convincing as to the authorship, nor does it aid in explaining the presence of the manuscript in Earl Grey's box. It is neither a full nor a fair test to compare the writing of the journal, of which a few pages are reproduced, with the letter written just before the execution, when strength of feeling might easily modify the usual form of the script. Notable differences may be seen, however, and a comparison with the account of the Mischianza, known to be in André's writing, would have been a better test.

Nor do the difficulties in accepting this record as described end with the question of penmanship of the journal. Unless André was specially set apart to prepare maps, was it possible for an aide, busily employed while the army was on the march and in a campaign, to prepare so large a number of elaborate maps, perfectly drawn and bearing evidence of close study of actual conditions? The difficulty might be lessened by saying that André merely "copied" maps sent to headquarters; or the groundwork of the maps might have been drawn by a regular engineer while André filled in the names of places and the manœuvres of the troops. Neither of these explanations would be satisfactory in itself, and either would detract from the claim made, that the maps were drawn by André. It is known that he was clever at drawing, but the workmanship of the maps would have demanded too much of his time from other duties, and their presence in the journal would seem to show that he prepared them (if indeed he did) for his own amusement. The writing of draughtsmen, like that of business clerks, is often conventionalized, offering many nice points of difference in the absence of an actual name or signature. It was certainly very uncritical to accept in so unquestioning a spirit the attribution of authorship that accompanied the manuscript. In themselves the maps are a really great addition to the cartography of the Revolution; but it still rests with the Bibliophile Society to prove that either journal or maps were of André's making. There is so much looseness in identifying unsigned manuscripts that every precaution against error should be taken before the stamp of authority is given to a doubtful piece. The Society appears to have taken no precaution, and thus offers a fair opportunity for questioning the correctness of its assumptions regarding this journal and the maps.

Notes on the Composition of Scientific Papers. By T. Clifford Allbutt. Macmillan Co. 1904. 8vo, pp. 154.

Dr. Allbutt adds to the characteristics of an elderly physician those of a don of a small college in an English university. Thus, he is particular to let us know that he has "read no grammars, nor the handbooks of literary artists." In other countries an author usually desires his readers to know that he has not entirely neglected the literature of the subject upon which he writes. But, considering how nearly identical the greater part of the matter of these "Notes" is with the time-honored recommendations that are found in all the textbooks of rhetoric, we cannot suppose that Dr. Allbutt expects us to think he has worked them all out by original reflection. The volume contains not a few remarks that argue a higher kind of discrimination; but a good many of these have sounded in our ears like reminiscences of observations that were certainly made by one or another of the older French writers on style, from Pascal to Sainte-Beuve; and, notwithstanding his modest-arrogant disclaimer, we should not wonder if all that La Bruyère, Fénelon, Voltaire, Marmontel, Vauvenargues, and Buffon ever wrote about style were perfectly familiar to Dr. Allbutt. Yes, and the utterances of modern critics as well. For when he tells us that 'Le Capitaine Fracasse' (which, though he does not name it individually, is included among its author's writings of which he does speak without limitation) "will not endure," for reasons which would equally apply to the conversations in Alexandre Dumas's novels and 'Impressions de Voyage,' this sounds a little as if it might have been said by one of the later critics in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. At any rate, it is sufficiently striking. Dr. Allbutt evidently approves of French rhetoric. It is something like that that he chiefly aims to enforce, though he sometimes fails to strike the nail squarely on the head. Thus, in order to illustrate Sainte-Beuve's manner of opening a "Causerie du Lundi," he quotes a sentence (in translation) which would have been an illustration of this author's sometimes failing to devise the kind of opening he preferred for his *causerie*, were it not that (though Dr. Allbutt does not remark it) it really comes from one of the 'Portraits Contemporains,' where a somewhat different style was chosen by Sainte-Beuve.

The "scientific papers" of the title-page appear in the body of the book as "scientific essays," by which are meant theses required from candidates for the degree of M.B. or of M.D. by the University of Cambridge—a motive entirely different from that of any genuine scientific writing. Now, rhetoric ought to be the doctrine of the adaptation of the forms of expression of a writing to the accomplishment of its purpose. Hence, the rhetoric which is specially appropriate to a thesis for a degree (whose soundest maxim is that the forms of expression must be such as the examiner, Dr. Allbutt or whoever it may be, will approve) is not specially appropriate to any writing having a really scientific purpose. The almost incredible comicalities of incorrect writing with which this volume is no less replete than are ordinary books of rhetoric, are examples of what writers of all kinds should shun. We doubt if they could have been culled out of American country newspapers—unless from the columns of jokes. Bad style rather than good style of writing has always been characteristic of the medical profession; it naturally would be so, for more than one reason. Sir Thomas Browne is often set up as one of the glories of English literature, and the mannerisms of the majority of doctors have been less agreeable than his; moreover, of the really great stylists among them a few only carry a distinctly professional stamp. But it is very surprising to find how atrocious must be the faults of the theses which call for such a book as this to correct them.

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Dr. Allbutt's own style is one of those that may be perfectly delightful to some persons and at the same time nauseating to others. He is more captious than correct, and more meticulous than engaging. He is very fond of employing technical terms of logic, but almost always applies them wrongly. He insists, for instance, that the word "theory" can properly be used only in a sense which would make it nearly synonymous with "theorem." Yet in one place he seems to confess (what is at all events true) that such a limitation is not in accordance with usage. From his dicta it would follow that the "atomic theory" ought not to be so called. The word "scientific," on the other hand, is used by him with extraordinary latitude. Thus, we read that "scientific writers are apt to suppose that restatement in bigger words is explanation." Evidently, the "scientific writers" he has in mind are the writers of the "scientific essays" he talks of—undisciplined candidates for medical degrees.

It is singular that while he holds that very few, if any, pairs of English words are synonyms, yet he thinks that all such half-English expressions as *raison d'être, tout ensemble, cortège, par excellence,* have their precise English equivalents. The extreme improbability of the proposition passes unnoticed. But who cannot see that all this is nothing but his personal taste, good or bad, hunting in quite a wrong direction after justification? In many cases his judgments are good, while the reasons he gives for them are bad. But in this, as in most respects, the book is very much like any ordinary book of rhetoric. Had he dropped all pretension to being himself very scientific or to having anything to say specially germane to the communication of scientific discoveries, and had he acknowledged that his book differed from a common text-book on style chiefly in not covering the ground systematically, we might have thought it a nice little thing in its way.

The Organization of Agriculture. By Edwin A. Pratt. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1904.

The subject treated by Mr. Pratt would, as he suggests, afford abundant scope for the enterprise of some twentieth-century Arthur Young. Even the hasty survey here taken is fascinating, and it is evident that a closer view would reveal many things of interest which lack of space prevents the author from noticing. His original purpose was to investigate the complaints made by British farmers against their railways. He found that in order to carry out this purpose it was necessary to inquire into conditions on the Continent, and this inquiry revealed the existence of organization, or combination, among farmers to a wonderful extent. The grievances of the English farmers were found to be due to their own lack of enterprise. They have allowed their own market to be taken away from them because they would not work together to maintain it.

It is hardly necessary to say that the managers of the English railways have no desire to cripple English agriculture. They know well enough that the local traffic is better worth cultivating than the foreign. But they simply cannot transport small quantities of perishable goods at carload rates. It is true that the Continental railways make very low rates on exports: they are generally under the control of governments that undertake to give bounties to exporters. But these low rates are not the chief factor. By means of organization, the farmers of the Continent are able to bring goods to the railways in wagon loads and even train loads. The National Poultry Organization Society recently asked one of the English railways for a lower rate on eggs from a certain county. The railway was at the time carrying through the district foreign eggs in twenty-five and fifty-ton lots. The railway officers replied: "If you will send us eggs in four-ton lots, we will give you a rate 25 per cent. lower than what we get for carrying the foreign eggs." But the offer had to be declined. In fact, a consignment of English eggs weighing a hundredweight is exceptional.

Mr. Pratt declares that in every one of the countries now pouring their agricultural produce into Great Britain there has been an agricultural revival, due to the spread of agricultural education and to combinations for an endless variety of purposes. Fertilizers are obtained by these associations, of better quality and of lower cost. Expensive machines are bought. Societies are formed both for production and for distribution. Agricultural credit banks have played a great part. They exist by thousands on the Continent, but are practically unknown in England. They have not been established in this country, though all other forms of coöperation are known to us. On the whole, Mr. Pratt's account of the progress of agricultural enterprise is very encouraging. It is only in England that the farmers seem to be unable to combine successfully. Even Ireland has been aroused, and the labors of Sir Horace Plunkett in establishing co-operative dairies have brightened the future of the Irish peasantry.

Collectanea Anglo-Premonstratensia. Edited for the Royal Historical Society by Father Francis A. Gasquet. Vol. I. London: Offices of the Society, Chancery Lane.

This initial volume contains documents drawn from the registers of the Premonstrant Order. The original register is now in the Bodleian Library, and there is in the British Museum the transcript of another register. From these sources Father Gasquet produces materials which open up a new chapter in the monastic history of mediæval England. That the Premonstratensians never reached the importance of the Cluniacs or Cistercians is sufficiently well known, but they came to England as early as 1143, built up in all more than thirty houses, and remained a factor in the ecclesiastical life of the island until the Reformation. St. Norbert, their founder, was son of the Count of Gennep, in the Duchy of Cleves, and connected through his mother with the Emperor Henry IV. The original monastery of Prémontré was situated in the forest of St. Gobain, within the diocese of Laon; and here, on Christmas Day, 1121, Norbert, with forty companions, received the white habit of canons regular from Bartholomew Viry, Bishop of Laon.

The chief aim of the Premonstratensians was preaching among the poor. In point of organization, Nobert followed the Augustinians, save that with his order the head of a daughter-house was styled Abbot, while with the Augustinians the official of corresponding rank received the lesser title of Prior. The only real innovation of Norbert seems to have been the establishment of Tertiaries on lines which were afterwards adopted by the mendicant orders. There were also Premonstratensian canonesses, but only two houses of these existed in England, and neither attained more than local influence. Welbeck Abbey, founded in 1153, grew to be the leading establishment of the English Premonstratensians.

The documents which are here edited by Father Gasquet may be divided into two main groups, the first belonging to the early years of the fourteenth, and the second to the later years of the fifteenth century. As every student of Rymer's 'Fœdera' knows, a great deal of friction arose in the days of the Edwards between the Crown and those members of alien religious orders who were sending money across the Channel at the instance of the Abbot-General or the Chapter-General. These documents of the Premonstratensians reveal the presence of heartburnings within the orders themselves on the subject of contributing to the funds of the mother-house abroad.

"From the English canons," says Father Gasquet, "Prémontré claimed three things: regular attendance on the part of the abbots at the annual general chapter, held at the mother-house; the appointment of the visitor to examine and report to the abbot-general as to the state of the houses; and the right to tax the affiliated houses for the benefit of the order in general and Prémontré in particular. It was this last demand which, in practice, caused many difficulties and led to many misunderstandings."

A crisis was reached in the reign of Edward II., when Adam de Crécy, Abbot of Prémontré, tried to insist on the full exercise of his prerogative. This policy led the English abbeys to appeal from their superior to the papacy, and in 1316 they secured a settlement which, while nominally a compromise, left the solid advantage with them. The fifteenth-century documents here published relate chiefly to the career of that distinguished Premonstratensian, Bishop Redman of Ely. Father Gasquet's preface contains an admirable summary of the documents and a discussion of the main points which they suggest.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annual of the British School at Athens. No. IX. Session 1902-3. Macmillan.
Bishop, Joseph B. Our Political Drama: Conventions, Campaigns, Candidates. Scott-Thaw Co.
Coubertin, Pierre de. La Chronique de France. 4th year. Paris.
Dorman, Marcus R. P. History of the British Empire in the 19th Century. Vol. II. The Campaigns of Wellington and the Policy of Castlereagh. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Easby-Smith, J. S. The Department of Justice: Its History and Functions. Washington: W. H. Lowdermilk & Co. 75c.
Foucart, Paul. Le Culte de Dionysos en Attique. Paris: C. Klincksieck. 8 fr.
Gleig, George R. Personal Reminiscences of the First Duke of Wellington. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Hamlin, Arthur S. Copyright Cases. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 net.
Lawrence, T. J. War and Neutrality in the Far East. The Macmillan Co. $1.25.
McLaren, J. Wilson. Weir the Wizard. (Fiction.) London and Edinburgh: Sands & Co. 6d.
Protection in Various Countries: Protection in the United States, by A. Maurice Low; Protection in Germany, by W. Harbutt Dawson; Protection in Canada and Australasia, by C. H. Chomley. London: P. S. King & Son. 3s. 6d. net each.
Purchase and Exploration of Louisiana. 1.—The Limits and Bounds of Louisiana. By Thomas Jefferson; 2.—The Exploration of the Red, the Black, and the Washita Rivers. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Rosenbach, Prof. Dr. O. Physician versus Bacteriologist. Funk & Wagnalls Co.

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